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# Informal Adult Education

group dynamics and the art of leadership

planning and setting up programs

recruiting and training leaders

*a complete, step-by-step guide for leaders and teachers*

promotion and finance

informal courses, forums, lectures, conferences

**Malcolm S. Knowles**

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# "INFORMAL ADULT EDUCATION . . .

is the kind of education that the grown-up years most require. But such education itself requires an attitude and a way of teaching that educators and educational administrators are only beginning to learn. This book will help greatly toward the learning. It is good to have informal adult education thus clearly put on the map,"——

comments DR. HARRY A. OVERSTREET in his Foreword to this complete step-by-step manual for teachers and leaders.

This first systematic statement of the principles and processes of informal adult education shows *both* professional and volunteer workers how to plan and conduct successful programs in all settings. Bridging the gap between theory and practice, it describes the principles and techniques growing out of recent research in group dynamics and applies them to the day-by-day problems of the teacher, the group and club leader, and the conference and forum director.

Malcolm Knowles writes from successful experience and long study. He is Executive Secretary of Central Y.M.C.A., Chicago, where the Learning for Living program, developed under his leadership, has attracted wide attention. He received his professional training in psychology, group work, and education at the University of Michigan and the University of Chicago. He is now a Lecturer in Adult Education and Group Dynamics at University College, University of Chicago, and Lecturer in Administration and Group Leadership at George Williams College.

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*INFORMAL ADULT EDUCATION*

# INFORMAL ADULT EDUCATION

ED108

A Guide for Administrators, Leaders, and Teachers . . . *by*

MALCOLM S. KNOWLES

*with a foreword by*

HARRY A. OVERSTREET

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# FOREWORD

THERE ARE, as we know, two kinds of adult education, formal and informal. The first adopts the methods long established in our going educational institutions. The second creates its methods. Each type has its place in the scheme of adult life. There are times when a formal course of instruction, given in the regular way of teacher, textbook, recitations, examination, and credit, is precisely what an adult must have if he is to fulfill certain requirements of his later life. There are, however, other times—and these more frequent—when what he most needs is not and could not be found in any formal course of instruction.

In this case, something educationally new under the sun has to be created. Since it must be newly created, it has no tradition to go by. It must venture on its own, succeeding if it can, failing if it must.

Most of the really exciting history of adult education lies in this creative area.

It is here that Malcolm Knowles has been working with marked success for many years. Like others in this creative field, he has had to start, not with well-established educational patterns, but with the unpatterned needs of adults. Out of these needs he has had to shape new educational patterns.

In this book, he discusses, in specific detail, many of the practical problems that confront the creative adult educator. Much of what he writes comes out of his own rich experience;

much of it comes out of his accurate knowledge of what is being done in the field.

It is good to have informal adult education thus clearly put on the map. Undoubtedly it is the kind of education that the grown-up years most require. But such education itself requires an attitude and a way of teaching that educators and educational administrators are only beginning to learn. This book will help greatly toward the learning.

H. A. OVERSTREET

# PREFACE

INFORMAL ADULT education is a movement so vast and so formless that large numbers of people engaged in it do not realize that is what they are doing. There is, of course, a sizable core of workers employed by such institutions as the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., university extension, evening high schools, labor unions, industry, rural agencies, and many others. These persons are becoming increasingly conscious of being professional workers in an educational movement.

Many thousands of people are giving vital leadership in informal adult education on a part-time basis. These include the program chairmen and group leaders in churches, women's clubs, social agencies, professional societies, fraternal organizations, consumers' co-operatives, civic organizations, and many other voluntary associations. Indeed, the greatest volume of adult education takes place in organizations that are not exclusively in the business of education, under the leadership of people who are not specifically trained for educational work.

Both groups of workers, professional and volunteer, find that informal adult education is both exciting and baffling. It is exciting because of the joy it brings to people who discover new interest in life. It is baffling because it is full of problems more complex than they appear on the surface to be. Most of these adult education workers are anxious to learn how to do their jobs better. Where can they go for help?

They are likely to find that the books, pamphlets, and ar-

ticles which make up the existing literature of adult education are excellent for general theory and background but provide few answers to such practical problems as how to start a program, what steps to take in building a sound organization, what methods work best in given situations, how to attract and interest participants, and how to measure results. There are good reasons for this gap in resource materials. The adult education movement has rightly been concerned, until now, with setting its goals and mapping its course. Principles and techniques of operation, developed through trial and error, have not been sufficiently tested to justify putting them down in black and white. The time has come, however, to make a beginning in formulating good principles and good practices, and submitting them to the test of experience.

This book attempts to bring together into a systematic statement some of the principles and techniques that have seemed to be successful under a variety of circumstances. It is not a finished blueprint, but a step-by-step description of successful experiences. All parts of the book will not be equally interesting or useful to all readers. For example, the chapter on informal courses may not apply directly to the problems of the person who is concerned only with club leadership. It is possible, however, that hidden in it are some insights that may be useful to him.

Every reader may properly expect to get at least these things from the book: (1) a sense of the significance of the adult education movement and of his part in it; (2) a general understanding of adult psychology; (3) a philosophy of education and of leadership that is applied consistently throughout the whole range of activities; (4) specific techniques of leadership, based on the most recent research; (5) an understanding of the various methods and materials of teaching and how to use them; (6) guiding principles and techniques for organizing and operating various types of educational programs, including informal courses, clubs, groups, forums, and conferences; (7) step-by-step suggestions for organizing groups and programs; (8) detailed methods, with examples, of promoting educational programs; (9) methods of evaluating programs.

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Illustrative material has been drawn from many sources, the chief of which is the author's own experiences in Boston, Detroit, and Chicago. More examples come from metropolitan than from rural and small city settings. For the most part, however, the principles and techniques described apply, regardless of the size or setting of the organization.

The sources of information do not all appear in the footnotes. So much of the information has become a part of the writer's own mind that it would be impossible to trace it to the original sources. Many books, articles, and dissertations have been read in the course of learning and teaching the practice of adult education. Association with several teachers and leaders in the field has been one of the richest sources of information and insight. The greatest contribution was made by Dr. Cyril O. Houle, Associate Professor of Education and Dean of University College, University of Chicago, who as a teacher guided me into advanced understanding of the theory and philosophy of adult education, and as a colleague helped me learn new skills in its practice. Arthur Dunham, Professor of Community Organization, School of Social Work, University of Michigan, is the source of many of the principles and techniques of organization and administration. To Professor Carl Rogers and his associate, Arthur Shedlin, of the University of Chicago, I am indebted for much of my understanding of the dynamics of personality and human development. Dr. Leland P. Bradford and Robert A. Luke of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association, Dr. Herbert A. Thelen of the University of Chicago, and the staff of the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan deserve acknowledgment for a large part of the material on new techniques of group leadership.

A number of people have read the manuscript and have given helpful suggestions for making it more useful to their organizations, including Mrs. Fred J. Pannwitt of the Evanston League of Women Voters and the Oakton United Church; Gerald O. Young of Kottcamp and Young, Inc., industrial consultants; Robert Clark of *World Republic;* Richard Lentz of the International Council on Religious Education; Dr. H. M.

Hamlin of the University of Illinois Department of Agriculture; and Len Arnold, Donald Canar, Ivan Springstead, Mrs. Stewart Cremer, and Miss Gloria Rossin of the staff of Central Y.M.C.A., Chicago. Special mention should be made of the help received from Mrs. Roger Goetz of the Illinois League of Women Voters in the basic organization of the book, and from Dr. Lawrence K. Hall, Director of Association Press, in improving its style. Finally, I owe a deep debt of gratitude to my wife, Hulda Fornell Knowles, who has been a helpfully critical "public" and a most efficient copyreader.

M.S.K.

January, 1950.

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# *PART ONE*

# The Opportunity

# 1

## A PROBLEM AND A CHALLENGE

ADULTHOOD is a problem. It is also a largely unfulfilled opportunity. It is a problem because our culture makes an assumption about adults that is not true. This is the assumption that adults, because they are adults, are mature. It is the assumption that by the time people reach twenty-one they have learned all they need to know for effective adult living.

Not all adults are mature, and probably every adult is immature in some respects. This is not an indictment. If we think of maturity as meaning that one has learned all he needs to know, there are good reasons why adults are immature. The world is too complex and is changing too rapidly for any person ever to master all he needs to know for future living. We can agree with Lyman Bryson, "It is impossible to teach a college youth of eighteen how to meet all the problems of a middle-aged man of fifty."[1]

### The Problem As the Individual Sees It

Adults want to learn.

This is the central fact for all adult education. Adults want to learn, but they seldom admit they do. What they want, in the words of Eduard Lindeman, is

> . . . intelligence, power, self-expression, freedom, creativity, appreciation, enjoyment, fellowship. . . . They want to count for something; they want their talents to be utilized; they want

[1] Lyman Bryson, *Adult Education* (New York: American Book Co., 1936), p. 9.

to know beauty and joy; and they want all of these realizations of their total personalities to be shared in communities of fellowship. Briefly, they want to improve themselves; this is their realistic and primary aim.[2]

Adults want to improve themselves because they feel that there is a gap between what they want to be and what they are. The desire for learning springs, therefore, from feelings of inadequacy of some sort. Owing to pressures in our culture, adults can rarely admit that this is so. It would threaten their prestige. This poses a real problem: How can one engage in learning activities without seeming to jeopardize his status as a self-respecting adult?

Adult learning is a problem to an individual in another respect. Adult life involves many responsibilities and many competing interests. Granted that an adult wants to learn, the question is: Can he spare the time and energy?

There may also be emotional blockings to an individual's learning. Negative associations with childhood learning cause some people to shy away from anything called education. Others feel that they have been out of school for so long that they have forgotten how to study; they are afraid they will look ridiculous in competition with other, smarter people. Then there are persons who believe that adults cannot learn, and so it never occurs to them to try.

These are some of the obstacles that individuals must overcome in taking part in adult learning. They are real, but not serious. One who wishes to help people learn will accept the fact that there are such obstacles and will be skillful in helping individuals overcome them.

## The Problem As the Program Director Sees It

At a convention of the officers of a group of women's clubs, the question was raised as to whether it was really a function of women's clubs to try to educate their members. One program chairman said that whether it should be a function or not, it could not be done. Women come to club meetings to

[2] Eduard C. Lindeman, *The Meaning of Adult Education* (New York: New Republic, Inc., 1926), pp. 13-14.

be entertained, not educated, and she went on to describe the attempt her club had made during the past year to introduce serious subjects.

The program committee of this club had decided in the fall that the meetings of the previous year had not been worth while. At this first meeting of the committee they selected topics that they felt to be timely and that would bring their members the information they should have. They chose such topics as "The Music of Beethoven," "The Beauties of Poetry," "The Citizen and His Responsibilities," and "American Foreign Policy." From a speakers' bureau the chairman obtained the names of professional speakers, most of them in the local university, persons who were not too expensive. A speaker was obtained for each topic. The chairman drafted a mimeographed announcement of the program for the year that was distributed to all members of the club. "And after all that thought and effort," the program chairman reported to the convention, "we never had more than fifty at a meeting, whereas the year before we had had an average of one hundred. Club women just don't want to be educated; they want to be entertained."

Another lady rose immediately and introduced herself as the program chairman of a neighboring women's club. She said that she could not agree with the first speaker that club women were not interested in learning about things that matter. Her club had discovered this quite inadvertently the previous spring, when they had asked every member to fill out a questionnaire indicating the kinds of programs they would like to have the following year. The members of the program committee also talked with as many members as possible through the summer. When they pooled the results of both their written and oral surveys at their fall meeting, they discovered that the subjects rating the greatest response were those dealing with serious problems. The topics included, "Will Your Sons Have to Fight Russia?," "Teaching Your Family to Play," "How to Influence Government and Win Freedom," "Can You Bring Prices Down?" and "Understanding Your Children." After the titles had been agreed upon, each member of the program committee accepted responsibility for making all arrangements

for one meeting. Speakers were obtained for some meetings, panels of club members for others, and films for others. Many additional members of the club were recruited for such tasks as telephoning lists of members before each meeting, arranging a baby-sitting service, preparing publicity materials, and providing refreshments. "Not only did the attendance at our monthly meetings increase over last year, but we had to form three separate study groups because the women wanted to go into some of the subjects more deeply."

Similar contradictory experiences have been met with in informal education courses. For example, when the adult education program at a large city Y.M.C.A. proved to be popular with its constituents, several smaller Y.M.C.A.'s in the area decided to put on similar programs. The secretary of one small branch set up six courses almost single-handed, by copying directly from the city program. All but one or two of his courses failed. Another small branch organized a committee of neighborhood residents, made a study of the needs and interests of the people it serves, and built a program that was considerably different form the city program. Starting with six courses that were successful, it now has twenty, which is its capacity.

These illustrations show the problem that faces the program director in helping adults learn. It is, in essence, to discover the difference between failure and success in these cases and so to master and apply the techniques of dynamic program building. He will then not be *educating* people but will be *helping them to learn.*

## The Problem As the Philosopher Sees It

The philosopher sees the problem of adult learning from the point of view that "civilization is a race between education and catastrophe."

He sees the average age of the population of our country steadily increasing. Statistics tell him that in 1930 the percentage of the population over forty-five years of age was almost double the percentage of such oldsters in 1850. The number of

youth under twenty was over half the entire population in 1850, whereas in 1930 it was under two-fifths and in 1980 it will probably be about a fourth.[3] He sees serious implications for our society in this shift of population. As stated by Pressey, Janney, and Kuhlen:

> . . . older people probably have less physical energy than young people, are mentally a little less quick and adjust less easily to new situations, are more set in their attitudes, desire security more than adventure, are less reckless and more fore-thoughtful of consequences, and (sometimes, at least) more tolerant and more wise. Such a shift in the age composition of the population may thus well change the entire tempo and tone of living. The study of the psychology of adult life becomes in sundry respects increasingly important![4]

The philosopher also sees that our society is becoming increasingly complex, is placing more and more responsibility on its citizens, and is therefore requiring a more intelligent and awakened citizenry. Alvin Johnson puts it this way:

> Adult education was important when America was young. It becomes more important every year, as life and learning become more complicated. In an aristocratic state it may be possible to leave politics and economics to a small select class. We Americans are committed to democracy, and in a democracy the people cannot leave it to the rulers to decide on political issues. With due respect to our great leaders who are seeking a way toward world peace, the responsibility for achieving world peace rests with us, the people. We cannot carry this responsibility properly unless we educate ourselves. We cannot count on peaceful settlement of the issues between labor and capital, betwen races and religions unless serious education is widely diffused among us.[5]

The "maturity concept" that recently has come into the philosopher's thinking sheds a new kind of light on the problem of adult learning. "The essential thing about an individual," according to Dr. Harry Overstreet, "is not so much the number of years he has lived as the psychological compe-

[3] Sidney L. Pressey, J. F. Janney, and R. G. Kuhlen, *Life: A Psychological Survey* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1939), p. 25. Adapted from Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, *Population Trends in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933), p. 109.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 26.

[5] Alvin Johnson, *The Clock of History* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1946), p. 226.

tence that those years have netted him. Thus we are given a new way to estimate ourselves and others. *Not all adults are adult.* Many who look grown-up on the outside may be childish on the inside." He goes on to say that "the business of man is to mature: to mature psychologically as well as physically, to mature along the line of what is unique in him and what he healthily shares with all his fellows, and to continue the maturing process throughout his life. This is the *maturity concept.*" Dr. Overstreet's definition of the mature person really states the problem for adult education:

> A mature person is not one who has come to a certain level of achievement and stopped there. He is rather a *maturing* person —one whose *linkages with life* are constantly becoming stronger and richer because his attitudes are such as to encourage their growth rather than their stoppage. A mature person, for example, is not one who knows a large number of facts. Rather, he is one whose mental habits are such that he grows in knowledge and the wise use of it.[6]

According to this definition, adults who are learning are ipso facto adults who are maturing. Adult education is the instrument by which we can produce mature people and, through them, a mature society.

To the philosopher, then, the problem of adult learning is the problem of maturing our people and rebuilding our civilization.

## The Challenge

The present world situation presents adult education with a new challenge: Can the forces in our society that are educating our citizens redirect their goals and speed up their efforts soon enough to solve the problems of these times?

Perhaps this challenge seems too lofty and abstract to mean much to the program chairman of a women's club in Spokane, or the evening school principal in Philadelphia, or the university extension director in Iowa City, or the adult center director in San Jose, or the rural education supervisor in Montgomery. But is it?

[6] Harry A. Overstreet, *The Mature Mind* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1949). The selections above are from pages 19, 41, and 43, respectively.

The major problems of our age deal with human relations; the solutions can be found only in education. Skill in human relations is a skill that must be learned; it is learned in the home, in the school, in the church, on the job, and wherever people gather together in small groups.

This fact makes the task of every leader of adult groups real, specific, and clear: Every adult group, of whatever nature, must become a *laboratory of democracy*, a place where people may have the experience of learning to live co-operatively. Attitudes and opinions are formed primarily in the study groups, work groups, and play groups with which adults affiliate voluntarily. These groups are the foundation stones of our democracy. Their goals largely determine the goals of our society. Adult learning should produce at least these outcomes:

*Adults should acquire a mature understanding of themselves.* They should understand their needs, motivations, interests, capacities, and goals. They should be able to look at themselves objectively and maturely. They should accept themselves and respect themselves for what they are, while striving earnestly to become better.

*Adults should develop an attitude of acceptance, love, and respect toward others.* This is the attitude on which all human relations depend. Adults must learn to distinguish between people and ideas, and to challenge ideas without threatening people. Ideally, this attitude will go beyond acceptance, love, and respect, to empathy and the sincere desire to help others.

*Adults should develop a dynamic attitude toward life.* They should accept the fact of change and should think of themselves as always changing. They should acquire the habit of looking at every experience as an opportunity to learn and should become skillful in learning from it.

*Adults should learn to react to the causes, not the symptoms, of behavior.* Solutions to problems lie in their causes, not in their symptoms. We have learned to apply this lesson in the physical world, but have yet to learn to apply it in human relations.

*Adults should acquire the skills necessary to achieve the*

*potentials of their personalities.* Every person has capacities that, if realized, will contribute to the well-being of himself and of society. To achieve these potentials requires skills of many kinds—vocational, social, recreational, civic, artistic, and the like. It should be a goal of education to give each individual those skills necessary for him to make full use of his capacities.

*Adults should understand the essential values in the capital of human experience.* They should be familiar with the heritage of knowledge, the great ideas, the great traditions, of the world in which they live. They should understand and respect the values that bind men together.

*Adults should understand their society and should be skillful in directing social change.* In a democracy the people participate in making decisions that affect the entire social order. It is imperative, therefore, that every factory worker, every salesman, every politician, every housewife, know enough about government, economics, international affairs, and other aspects of the social order to be able to take part in them intelligently.

The society of our age, as Robert Maynard Hutchins warns us, cannot wait for the next generation to solve its problems. Time is running out too fast. Our fate rests with the intelligence, skill, and good will of those who are now the citizen-rulers. The instrument by which their abilities as citizen-rulers can be improved is adult education. This is our problem. This is our challenge.

# 2

## UNDERSTANDING HUMAN NATURE: THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ADULTHOOD

A THOROUGH UNDERSTANDING of human nature is most valuable equipment for a leader of adults. Why do adults join groups? What are their real needs? What motivates them? What are their interests? Why do they choose certain activities and not others? How do adults learn? These are questions that program chairmen and educational directors must be able to answer if they are to build successful programs.

Programs are often based on what an individual or small group *think* people *ought* to be interested in, rather than on what they really want and need. The point of view expressed throughout this book is that good program building is a matter of understanding what each individual really needs and wants, and being skillful in creating opportunities in which people will find the satisfactions they seek. In adult education "the customer is always right," insofar as his desires are compatible with the objectives of our society. Under no other assumption is democratic adult education possible, for in a democracy responsibility rests with each individual to decide the course of his own growth.

Probably the most important fact about adults is the great variety of differences among them. They vary in their endowments, they vary in their opportunities, and they vary in the speed and direction of their growth. Underlying these differences are forces that seem to be at work universally in human development.

## Motivating Forces

Even the earliest observers of human behavior recognized certain springs of action that cause people to do the things they do. For many centuries the urges that drive man to action were attributed to gods and spirits, both good and evil. Modern psychological observation and experimentation have been able to make these forces understandable by isolating them, describing them, and to some extent testing and controlling them.

One clue as to why people act the way they do is given in the following formula:[1]

| *Needs, or Motivating Forces* | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Physical<br>2. Growth<br>3. Security<br>4. New experience<br>5. Affection<br>6. Recognition | + | Experience and ability | = | BEHAVIOR |

The meaning of this formula is that certain needs, at a given moment, set up a tension in a person causing him to want to do something. Usually there will be several alternative courses of action by which the need can be satisfied. Which of the alternatives a particular individual will choose will be determined by his unique experience and ability.

For example, two individuals have a strong need for recognition. One of them, because of his special experience and ability, may choose to get recognition by stealing a flashy convertible. The other, because his experience and ability are of a different sort, may choose to run for mayor.

Consider the nature of these needs and how they manifest themselves:

1. *Physical needs.* These are the most easily observed and most consciously experienced needs. Everyone knows that when he *feels* hungry he *wants* food. The same kind of immediacy occurs with thirst, fatigue, and peristalsis. Sigmund Freud has pointed out the devious and subtle expressions of the sexual

[1] Adapted from a formulation by Dr. Ralph H. Ojemann and associates at the Child Welfare Research Station of the University of Iowa.

urge. Physical needs are a compelling source of motivation for a large share of men's actions.

2. *The growth urge.* The growth urge explains many of the things people do. It is noticeable in children, for example, that the urge to learn to talk, crawl, walk, and to grow in many other ways, is so strong that it cannot be diverted. Adolescents feel a driving need to break away from parental control, even in the most permissive and loving homes. There can be no doubt that children are motivated by a powerful urge to grow up.

There is convincing evidence that this urge continues to operate throughout normal life. The mature adult who "can see no future" for himself is a familiar—and pitiful—figure in psychological clinics. Without some future to grow to, life becomes less worth while. Even in old age there is apparently a need to keep growing. Recent studies of retired persons reveal that those who have some secondary purpose in life toward which they can continue to strive succeed in making a happy adjustment. Those who have not mapped out new directions to explore suffer intensely—and may even die.

The urge for growth is an especially strong motivation for learning, since education is, by definition, growth—in knowledge, skills, attitudes, understandings, and appreciation. The mere act of learning something new gives one a sense of growth.

3. *The need for security.*[2] It has long been recognized that there is a strong instinct for self-preservation in all animal life. The need for security includes the need for physical safety but goes beyond it into the area of psychological security. It is this need which motivates people to be cautious and conservative, to avoid "going out on a limb." Because of it we are likely to feel most comfortable in work that is systematic and in surroundings that are orderly. We like to know where to find things, what is going to happen next, and where we are going. The need for security also explains, in part, our strong

[2] The needs for security, new experience, affection (response), and recognition were first described in W. I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl* (New York: Longmans, Green, 1931), pp. 4-32.

desire to accumulate property, our interest in insurance, and the popularity of welfare legislation. This need probably includes the desire for spiritual security—the comfort of a satisfying religion.

4. *The need for new experience.* While men seek security, they also crave excitement, adventure, and activity. We become bored with too much routine, too much security. A child can sit still just so long before he has to get up and do something—anything. Similarly, an adult cannot be confined to the home or the office very long before he finds himself planning some kind of diversion. Because of the need for new experience we are motivated to seek new friends, new interests, new ways of doing things, and new ideas.

5. *The need for affection.* The desire for affection motivates people to seek and give signs of appreciation with other individuals. Each of us needs to have a few close friends with whom we can share interests, experiences, joys, and sorrows. This is the most social of the needs.

6. *The need for recognition.* This desire motivates men to strive for position in their social group and in the larger community. It causes them to seek and enjoy attention and admiration. A simple test with children demonstrates the directness with which recognition operates as a motivating force: If a noisy child is given the wholehearted attention of his elders his noisiness almost always will disappear immediately. Adults use similar devices for gaining recognition, such as "showing off," monopolizing conversations and discussions, and wearing conspicuous clothing, as well as in constructive ways, such as excelling in their jobs or becoming leaders in their communities.

It is important, for anyone who wants to help people learn, to recognize that these needs are natural and compelling, and that they must be satisfied. They can be suppressed, but only at the risk of serious damage to the personality. Educationally, the problem is to help people find socially acceptable and personally beneficial ways of satisfying their needs.

These universal needs have their greatest significance for

adult education as the source of motivation for learning. It should be noted, however, that while they appear to be common to all human beings, each person's particular pattern of needs is uniquely his own and is constantly changing.

The adult leader who understands these needs will take them into account in many ways. He will provide for physical comfort and will seek to develop physical well-being. He will assure each individual a learning experience that will give him a sense of growth. He will offer programs designed to increase the economic, social, psychological, and spiritual security of adults, and will provide an environment in which they will feel secure while learning. He will expose adults to the adventure of new interests, new ideas, new friends, and new ways of doing things, and will make certain that his program never becomes dull and routine. He will provide opportunity for the development of warm friendships and will try to see that there is always an atmosphere of friendliness in the activities for which he is responsible. He will accept and understand the need for recognition and will be ingenious in creating numerous opportunities for adults to obtain recognition constructively.

The wise leader of adults will do more. He will develop in himself the habit of looking beyond the surface symptoms of behavior to their causes. He will refrain from making snap judgments about the goodness or badness of any act, but will always ask, "Why?" He will help adults to become aware of their needs and to enlarge their experience and improve their ability so as to be able to satisfy these needs through more desirable behavior. Finally, he will also help every adult to develop the habit of looking beyond the symptoms of behavior to causes.

Another way of listing motivating forces is in terms of incentives for learning. A helpful list of some of these incentives, developed by Dr. Irving Lorge of Columbia University, is given in Exhibit 1.

## Development Through the Life Span

One approach to the understanding of adults is in terms of the changes that take place as a result of the natural process

EXHIBIT 1

## INCENTIVES FOR ADULT LEARNING[3]

*People Want to Gain*

1. Health
2. Time
3. Money
4. Popularity
5. Improved appearance
6. Security in old age
7. Praise from others
8. Comfort
9. Leisure
10. Pride of accomplishment
11. Advancement: business, social
12. Increased enjoyment
13. Self-confidence
14. Personal prestige

*They Want to Be*

1. Good parents
2. Sociable, hospitable
3. Up to date
4. Creative
5. Proud of their possessions
6. Influential over others
7. Gregarious
8. Efficient
9. "First" in things
10. Recognized as authorities

*They Want to Do*

1. Express their personalities
2. Resist domination by others
3. Satisfy their curiosity
4. Emulate the admirable
5. Appreciate beauty
6. Acquire or collect things
7. Win others' affection
8. Improve themselves generally

*They Want to Save*

1. Time
2. Money
3. Work
4. Discomfort
5. Worry
6. Doubts
7. Risks
8. Personal embarrassment

of growth. While a person carries the same name throughout life, he is not always the same person—psychologically, physically, and socially. He is a developing organism as long as he lives, constantly changing in his needs, abilities, interests, attitudes, and relationships. Many of these changes may be due to changes in his environment, but many are due to changes within himself that occur naturally in the process of aging.[4]

[3] Irving Lorge, "Effective Methods in Adult Education," *Report of the Southern Regional Workshop for Agricultural Extension Specialists* (Raleigh: North Carolina State College, June, 1947), p. 25.

[4] The organization and much of the material in this section is adapted from Sidney L. Pressey, J. E. Janney, and R. G. Kuhlen, *Life: A Psychological Survey* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1939).

The general course of physical development is one of surging upward growth into the twenties and then of tapering off into the ripening of middle age and the fading of the later years. The gradual decline that takes place after the peak has been reached in the twenties manifests itself in several ways that are significant to education. The most marked changes take place in the sensory equipment. In seeing and hearing, ability declines steadily from age fourteen on. Strength, skill, and vigor begin to ebb, so that as we grow older we have less energy and are more easily exhausted. Our speed of reaction in terms of the time necessary to perform tasks becomes gradually slower. There is a general slowing-up process after about the twenty-fifth year.

These facts about physical development have many implications for the teaching of adults, such as the importance of good lighting, good acoustics, audible speech, short meetings, relatively slow pace, and other obvious considerations for the increasing inadequacies of age.

Of paramount significance to adult education, however, is the fact that much of the decline in physical abilities is due to neglect rather than to the inevitable infirmities of age. This suggests that adult education could make a major contribution to society by providing opportunities and motivation for masses of people to keep physically fit throughout their life span.

## THE GROWTH AND DECLINE OF MENTAL ABILITIES

The widespread myth that adults lose the ability to learn as they leave the twenties has been definitely exploded by modern psychological research. Extensive studies by means of intelligence tests show that mental ability grows rapidly during adolescence, reaches a peak during the late teens or early twenties, and then gradually declines at the rate of about one per cent each year after forty years of age. More recent experiments involving actual learning situations reveal, however, that it is not the *capacity* to learn that declines, but the *rate* of learning. In other words, older adults have just as much capacity for learning as they had when they were younger. They merely

learn a little more slowly. And there is good reason to believe that even this slowing-up process is due in large part to lack of practice. Those adults who engage in learning activities throughout life seem to lose very little of their intellectual efficiency.

Two significant conclusions can be drawn from these facts about mental development: first, that adults *can* learn throughout life—and, therefore, that there is no obstacle to their taking part profitably in adult education; and secondly, that adult education can, by providing adults with continuous practice in learning, help them to retain their intellectual power throughout life.

### THE DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF INTERESTS WITH AGE

The development of interests—what people do, talk or read about, or otherwise turn to when they do as they wish—is clearly influenced by physical development and changes in the circumstances of living. There is a definite decline in interest in sports and active recreation, for example, as we grow older, and an increase in the more cultural or sedentary uses of leisure time. Our social interests tend to become narrower and more fixed as we proceed from courtship to establishing a home, raising children, and, finally, retiring. Our interests are strongly affected by such environmental forces as the housing situation, economic conditions, war, and recreational opportunities in the community. We tend to be buffeted about, too, by the changing fashions and codes of our society.

Adult education has to recognize and adapt to the changing interests of adults. It also has the responsibility to society and to individuals to influence the development of interests in desirable directions.

### THE COURSE OF SOCIAL LIFE

There are two major crisis periods in the social development of the adult. One is the period following school and before marriage, when the young adult has to make the difficult transition from a school-centered life that is highly organized and quite protective to a rather inhospitable and individualistic

adult world. Old friendships often wither away and new friends have to be found. It is the time when old patterns of studying and playing must give way to new patterns of working and shouldering responsibilities.

The middle years are occupied with building and maintaining happy social relationships in the family, creating friendship circles, and getting ahead at work. Considerable energy may be given to gaining social position in the community.

The second crisis occurs in old age. The transition here is from a full life built around family and work to the less purposeful and more lonely life of retirement. The children marry and leave home, and old friends move away or die. The social activities of the church, neighborhood, and club are keyed to the interests and energy of the next generation, so that unless older people find new associations and interests their lives are futile and lonely.

Adult education programs can be helpful at many points in making the course of social life smoother. They can assist young adults in learning the social skills that are necessary to get along in the adult world. They can teach facts and develop attitudes and skills that make for happy family living and constructive participation in community affairs. And they can be of invaluable assistance in preparing older people for purposeful and happy retirement.

### THE COURSE OF WORK LIFE

The average young adult begins his work life with high hopes that, in the American tradition and with hard work, he will reach the top rungs of the occupational ladder. His dreams seldom come true, according to the facts revealed in Census data and other statistics. From his first job through his last he usually has to accept a kind of job, an income, hours of work, type of associates, and other conditions that are beneath his aspirations. The disillusioned working adult may try to bring his aspirations and reality together by adjusting his aspirations downward, simply resigning himself to present reality. Or he may, by joining the trade-union movement or participating in politics, seek to change working conditions

and opportunities to bring reality closer to his aspirations. Still another method he may use to achieve his ambitions is to improve his own skills continuously so that he can command better jobs and higher pay in competition with other workers.

Adult education can enter into the picture at many points. It can help young adults obtain realistic vocational interests without at the same time causing them to lose their ambition. It can help them to develop an understanding of the democratic process and to become skillful in changing the social order so that it will better meet the aspirations of the people. Finally, adult education can help individuals to develop new skills or improve present skills so that they will be better workmen.

### DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGES IN ATTITUDES, CHARACTER, AND LIFE PHILOSOPHY

While basic attitudes are formed early in life, they grow and change with age. There is good reason to believe that the development of attitudes should be one of the chief concerns of the entire educational system, for it is out of attitudes—especially one's attitude toward himself and toward others—that emotional adjustment or maladjustment develops. The alarming increase in the number of patients in mental hospitals in recent years has caused us to recognize the dramatic urgency of mental health, with the result that many of our more progressive public schools are as concerned about the emotional development of children as they are about their intellectual development.

Traits of character, such as honesty and industry, which are established in early childhood usually continue throughout life and become deeper with maturing experience. Character is subject to change, however, by social and economic forces. Basic needs and interests can be frustrated only to a certain point in any individual without his morale disintegrating.

The development of a philosophy of life—an ultimate goal and system of values—is a lifelong quest. In adolescence and old age it may be the dominating concern of life, but at no time in the life span is it a minor concern. Church and religion continue to be the sources to which most people turn for

guidance in developing a philosophy of life. And yet many feel a deep need for knowledge from other sources as well.

These facts about the development of attitudes, character, and life philosophy suggest many implications for adult education. Certainly there is as much need for the training of emotionally healthful attitudes in adults as there is in children. There would also seem to be a clear responsibility to develop further such character traits as patience, industry, loyalty, and courage, to enable adults better to face the trials of an increasingly complex world. Finally, one of the greatest needs of our day is a revitalizing of the means of helping people to think through the ultimate meaning of life and to find themselves in terms of that meaning.

## How Adults Learn

The basic elements of the learning process are brought out in a simple report of her experience by a student in the *Learning for Living* program of the Chicago Y.M.C.A.:

> I first joined this class (Psychology and Personality Development) because a friend of mine dragged me with her. She said I needed it. I can't even remember what the first couple of meetings were about—I didn't even want to learn anything. Then, at the third meeting, somebody told about his fear of going up in high buildings and the class discussed what could be done about it. That was my problem, too, and so I began paying attention and entering into the discussion. I even read some of the books that were suggested. The first thing I knew, I was riding in elevators without thinking about it. I got a lot out of the course in other ways, too, and want to go on to the advanced course.

As this story suggests, the first requirement for learning is the desire to learn. (The illustration also implies that the desire to learn can be aroused, if it does not originally exist.) Learning must be purposive. The learner must have an objective in mind and must be motivated toward it. Most psychologists would agree with Samuel Butler that the best time to learn something is when you feel acutely uncomfortable about not knowing it. Many adult education programs give tacit recognition to the importance of building up a desire to learn

through the use of such slogans as, "It's fun to learn," "Learn and succeed," and "Knowledge is power."

The second step in the learning process is the putting forth of effort. Experimentation shows that the process always involves the presence of an obstacle to be overcome, requiring the learner to put forth effort in figuring out a means for overcoming it. The more meaningful this "problem situation" is to the learner—the closer it comes to matching his own experience–the more he will learn from it. This principle also implies that learning involves activity. The learner cannot possibly be passive; he will learn only if he takes part. In our illustration, the student admitted that she could not even remember what went on in the first two meetings of the class; but as soon as she began entering into the discussion and reading, she began learning.

The final step in the learning process is the experiencing of satisfaction. As soon as our student discovered that her fear of height was actually being overcome, she became avid for more learning. We learn best when there is some reward for learning, as expressed in the satisfaction of needs, in commendation from the teacher or from associates, or in the general feeling of accomplishment.

John Dewey used three words to sum up this process: *need, effort,* and *satisfaction.* Learning starts with a need–the desire to satisfy body needs, the desire to get along with others, the desire to know, or the desire to become something better. This need motivates us to seek a situation in which to satisfy the need; and the effort put forth results in complete or partial success or failure, producing feelings of satisfaction, displeasure, relaxation, exhilaration, or exhaustion, depending upon the outcome of our effort.

Probably the chief lesson the psychologists have for adult educators is that learning should be pleasant, meaningful, based on real experience, and satisfying.

## The Kinds of Things Adults Like to Learn

There are two types of organized class programs–formal and informal. Formal programs are those sponsored for the most

part by established educational institutions, such as universities, high schools, and trade schools. While many adults participate in the courses without working for credit, they are organized essentially for credit students. The most popular of the formal courses are the liberal arts, which attract those adults whose education has been interrupted, and various vocational courses, which fill a need for adults whose earlier vocational training was unsatisfactory or who wish to keep up with new developments in their vocation. Informal classes, on the other hand, are generally fitted into the more general programs of such organizations as the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., community centers, labor unions, industries, and churches. Many formal educational institutions also offer informal classes in addition to their regular curriculum. These courses are not for credit or a degree, but have as their objective the meeting of an immediate interest or need.

On the basis of the frequency with which they appear in the announcements of informal course programs the country over, the following informal courses seem to be most popular:

Public speaking, diction, vocabulary building, and salesmanship
Creative writing
Cultural appreciation (music, art, literature)
Personal adjustment (psychology, personality development)
Social adjustment (marriage, parent education, psychology)
Conversational French, Spanish, and German
Arts and crafts
Business skills (accounting, advertising, business administration, etc.)
Leisure-time skills (photography, dancing, hobbies)
Homemaking (cooking, sewing, child care, interior decoration)

Additional courses in public affairs, science, religion, health, industrial arts, history, economics, and other subject-matter fields appear here and there in the promotion literature, but they are obviously not so popular with adults as the subjects listed above.

Program chairmen and others who are responsible for lecture series, forums, and club programs report that these types of activities are most popular:

Eye-witness reports from abroad
Big-name speakers on public affairs
Travel films and talks
Unusual entertainment—musical, graphic arts, etc.
Debates, symposiums, etc., in which there is real conflict

And these are the topics that draw the largest audiences:

Controversial local problems—civic improvement, politics, juvenile delinquency, divorce
International relations
Psychology and personal development
Scientific discoveries
Business and finance—if personalized
Any subject that is prominent in the news

Several important differences are found between the interests in organized classes and the interests in lecture, forum, and club programs. In the first place, the former are likely to be stable, long-term interests, while the latter are more transitory. In the second place, lectures, forums, and club programs are more flexible than organized classes. In a program series the topics can range from pure entertainment to serious lectures, while an organized class is necessarily limited to a single subject-matter area. Third, the lecture, forum, and club types of programs generally require less commitment of time, money, and energy from participants than do organized classes. As a result, they are likely to attract people with somewhat less intense interest.

An analysis of these educational activities that appeal to adults suggests certain principles helpful to program-builders:

1. A new interest should be attached to an established interest. (For instance, a new interest in learning about atomic energy is attached to the existing interest in survival.)

2. Opposing points of view are more interesting than one point of view. (People love a fight; they will attend a meeting presenting a conflict situation on a subject that would otherwise be uninteresting to them. People prefer objective handling of controversy, however, to emotional display.)

3. Well-known personalities are interesting in themselves. (People will come to hear a famous person talk about a subject that in itself might not attract them.)

4. Problems are more interesting than topics, especially if they are real, personal, and specific. ("Must We Fight Russia?" is more appealing than "Russia and American Foreign Policy.")

This discussion does not mean that the planner of programs should cater entirely to the present interests of people. It is extremely important for every program director and every organization to have a clear-cut set of objectives, but successful programs start where people are. Through skillful leadership and exposure to new ideas and new interests people grow in new directions. As a matter of fact, one of the most important functions of adult education is to help people broaden their interests.

*PART TWO*

# The Methods and the Programs

# 3

## HOW TO TEACH ADULTS

TEACHING is both a science and an art. There is a large body of knowledge about teaching, derived from research and experience. But the application of this knowledge to specific learning situations, especially adult learning situations, requires the sensitive touch of the artist. Teaching is, moreover, less a creative art than a co-operative art; for while the teacher must create the kind of atmosphere in which learning will take place, he does this not within his own imagination but in co-operation with the students.

As a science, education—especially adult education—is in its beginning. Although many important discoveries regarding the principles of learning and of teaching have been made during the last few decades, we know that much has yet to be learned. It is not difficult to distinguish really great teachers from the ordinary ones, and we can even identify many of the factors that tend to make them great teachers. We have much to learn about how to produce the same artistry in others.

For these reasons, this is an exciting time to be engaged in adult teaching. It is an era of adventure, of creative development. Every teacher can, if he wants, strike out on new paths —with very good chances that he may strike gold. He need not be limited by set rules. Teaching adults is, by and large, a pioneer profession, rich in rewards for people with imagination and initiative. Principles and methods are offered with such qualifications as "so far as we know," or "our experience to

date would seem to indicate." Yesterday's apparent axioms—such as, that adults will not do homework—may be disproved by today's experience. With this reservation, let us examine some principles and methods of teaching adults.

## Purpose of Teaching

The first requisite of good teaching is an understanding that the *purpose* of all teaching is to produce changes in human behavior. The changes sought are of five kinds:

1. Changes in things known, or *knowledge*
2. Changes in things done, or *skills*
3. Changes in things felt, or *attitudes*
4. Changes in things valued, or *appreciation*
5. Changes in things comprehended, or *understanding*

The teacher who consciously seeks to create situations in which these changes will take place is on his way toward achieving artistry in teaching. His attention will then be focused on producing changes in persons, not on covering a given amount of subject matter.

## A Philosophy of Education

Good teaching requires that the teacher and the institution have a philosophy of education. By this is meant a clear idea of what is ultimately valuable, as distinguished from the immediate objectives of individual courses. Without a philosophy of education, how can we determine what are "desirable" changes in human behavior? How can we be sure that our immediate objectives are consistent one with another and are pointed in the same direction?

One basic philosophy of education is derived from the concept of education as an instrument of social development. The ultimate objective of education, it states, is to produce individuals who are effective members of the societies to which they belong. Values are stated in terms of the cultural patterns of the society within which education functions. The ultimate objectives of education, therefore, are constantly changing as society changes.

A second philosophy has as its true end the education of the individual man. The ultimate objective of education, it maintains, is the development of the intellect, character, appreciation, and physical well-being of each individual to the highest degree possible. The values flowing from this philosophy are derived deductively in terms of the good, the true, and the beautiful for all men in all places at all times. The immediate situation, therefore, has no effect upon the ultimate objectives of education.

Most informal adult education programs in existence today were developed according to the first philosophy, largely because the institutions which sponsored them were themselves founded on those principles. It could be a useful experience for every adult education staff to devote some time periodically to defining its philosophy of education—to describing the kind of individual and society it wishes to produce.

## What Is Teaching?

Our conception of what teaching is grows out of our conception of what learning is. Learning is something that takes place within the learner and is personal to him—an essential part of his development. It takes place when the individual feels a need, puts forth effort to meet the need, and experiences satisfaction with the results of his effort. The thing learned then becomes a part of him. Learning is "a process by which an individual makes some new skill or idea his own because in some way and to some degree it fills a need he feels."[1]

If this is learning, then teaching must mean a great deal more than merely imparting knowledge, as the dictionary describes it (and all too many teachers regard it). Teaching is a process of guided interaction between the teacher, the student, and the materials of instruction. The teacher guides the process on the basis of his understanding of both student and materials so as to create learning experiences that will be meaningful to the student. Teaching, like medical practice, is mostly a matter of co-operation with nature. The function of the teacher

[1] Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, *Psychology and The New Education* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1944), p. 466.

is to guide the student into the kind of experiences that will enable him to develop his own natural potentialities.

According to this point of view, teaching starts where the student is and continues to focus on him. Subject matter is a means, not an end.

## Principles of Adult Teaching

How can one identify good teaching? What are the characteristics of the good learning situation? An analysis of many experiences in which learning has taken place reveals certain conditions that they have in common. They are stated here as principles of adult teaching:[2]

1. *The students should understand and subscribe to the purposes of the course.* If the students are to work efficiently they must know the *general* goal of the course, they must be able to see the picture as a whole and have a clear sense of direction. It is important, therefore, in describing the course, to state these goals explicitly, and for the instructor to interpret them at the first meeting.

If the students are, in addition, to work enthusiastically, they must have a part in setting the *specific* goals of the course. They must have assurance that the instruction will be directed toward their problems. An informal discussion of problems at the first meeting will help to make the specific goals of the course meaningful to the students.

2. *The students should want to learn.* In adult education it is assumed that most students come into a class with a desire to learn, since they usually come voluntarily. It is not uncommon, however, for the teacher of adults to be faced with the problem of having to encourage a student to want to learn. The desire to learn generally springs from a feeling of inadequacy because of the gap between where one now is and where one would like to be. A student is likely to lose his desire to learn if this gap seems too insurmountable. An understanding teacher can help a student analyze his goals and abilities realist-

[2] The writing of this section has been influenced by the admirable pamphlet, *How To Teach Adults*, published by the International Harvester Co., Chicago.

ically so that he is stimulated to want to achieve what he can.

3. *There should be a friendly and informal climate in the learning situation.* Since the interaction among members of the group is an important source of learning, the teacher has a responsibility for establishing the kind of atmosphere that will facilitate group discussion. His own attitude of understanding, acceptance, and respect for personality will tend to spread to other members of the group. In addition, the teacher can help the students to become acquainted with one another at the first meeting by having them introduce themselves and give a brief statement about their experience and interests. If the instructor looks upon his role as that of leader and learner rather than that of schoolmaster, he will be more successful in establishing the type of social situation that is most conducive to adult learning.

4. *Physical conditions should be favorable.* The arrangement of chairs, tables, and equipment should take into consideration the comfort of the students and the desired type of relationship among them. For example, if the relationship is to be one of free exchange, then the chairs should be arranged so that the students will be facing one another. The teacher should be sensitive to temperature, ventilation, lighting, and outside noises and distractions.

5. *The students should participate and should accept some responsibility for the learning process.* The best way to learn is by doing. When a person does something or says something in his own words it is much more likely to become a part of him than if he watches someone else do it or hears someone else say it. In general, the more active the students are in a learning situation the more they will learn. They will also learn more if they feel some personal responsibility toward the group process. For this reason, it is wise for the teacher to have many of the decisions about group activity made by the group. The group that is largely self-managing will produce better learning experiences than the group that is dependent upon the teacher. Furthermore, active participation and a sense of responsibility increase the student's enjoyment of the process.

6. *Learning should be related to and should make use of the students' experience.* The presentation of ideas and knowledge, if it is to be meaningful to the students, should be adapted to their level of experience. This does not mean talking down to some and up to others. It means relating and applying the generalizations being taught to the kinds of experiences represented in the group. Adults learn by associating a new experience to a past experience—by relating the unknown to the known. In teaching a course in retailing to a group of department store executives, one would use quite a different set of illustrations from those he would use in teaching the same course to a group of rural feed salesmen.

The experience of the students also enters into the learning situation as a rich source of knowledge. The members of any adult class will possess a quantity of varied experiences that can be used for the common benefit of the entire class.

7. *The teacher should know his subject matter.* We must not minimize the importance of subject matter. If the teacher is to be effective in guiding the student into worth-while learning experience he must possess expert knowledge of the subject being taught. The teacher must know the literature of the field well enough to select materials intelligently and to suggest sources to which students may go for information. He must know the subject matter well enough to organize it in proper sequence, and to serve as an on-the-spot resource for information.

8. *The teacher should be enthusiastic about his subject and about teaching it.* Enthusiasm is contagious. A teacher who obviously likes what he is teaching and derives personal satisfaction from teaching will soon have a class of enthusiasts. Enthusiasm is the best motivation to learning.

9. *Students should be able to learn at their own pace.* In every adult class there is a wide range of experience, education, aptitudes, interests, and abilities. Provision should be made for these individual differences. Students who learn rapidly can be encouraged to do more advanced work or to pursue individual projects. Slower students should be assured that in adult

education they are not competing with others, but only with themselves.

10. *The student should be aware of his own progress and should have a sense of accomplishment.* Each student enters a course with certain objectives. If his interest is to be maintained he must have a sense of progressing toward those objectives. The wise teacher will plan consciously for periodic demonstrations, exhibits, personal interviews, recitations, and other means whereby the students can measure their progress. There are many opportunities in the classroom for the teacher to point out individual and group accomplishments. It is an accepted principle of educational psychology that reward is a more effective stimulus to learning than punishment.

11. *The methods of instruction should be varied.* In any given learning situation the teacher will probably have a choice of several methods of instruction. For example, if the problem is to learn about housing in a certain community, the teacher would have a choice of lecturing, showing a motion picture, examining wall charts, or taking the group on a field trip. A good teacher is skillful in using all teaching methods, varying them according to the requirements of the situation and the needs of the students. This helps to maintain interest, stimulate student participation, and meet individual differences.

12. *The teacher should have a sense of growth.* It is important to the teacher's own attitude that he should consider the teaching experience as an opportunity for his own personal development. If the teacher is a fellow learner his interaction with the students is bound to be more stimulating than if he has the attitude that he knows all there is to know and is in the group merely to pass along his knowledge. The attitude of the teacher is the strongest force in determining the climate of the group and the attitudes of the students.

13. *The teacher should have a flexible plan for the course.* It will help both the teacher and the students to have a clear idea of what they are doing and where they are going if the plan for the course is flexible, based on the objectives agreed upon by the group. In certain types of courses, such as science or mathematics, in which the learning of facts is relatively more

important than the development of attitudes, skills, or appreciation, this plan may be quite detailed and rigid. In most courses concerned with adult problems, however, the process is likely to be more subjective and the plan will have to be more general and fluid.

The plan may be merely a rough outline, or it may be a series of carefully worked-out lessons, projects, or laboratory experiments. In any case, the plan should be formulated in such a way that the learning sequence is from simple to complex, from known to unknown; that the aims of each unit are connected with the aims of the course as a whole; and that the need for illustrative materials is predictable in order that they will be available when needed.

A characteristic common to most of these principles is what might be called "ego-involvement." Ego-involvement is the condition in which a person completely identifies himself—his goals, his values, his interests—with whatever he and his fellow students are doing. He becomes involved with a thing to the extent of losing himself in it. This condition is probably the ultimate goal of educational methodology, for when a person "loses" himself in the learning process he learns most effectively.

## Selecting and Organizing the Subject Matter

One of the difficult problems is deciding what to teach. There is always more that ought to be taught than can possibly be covered in the time available. This is especially true in adult education programs with short courses of from six to twelve weeks. The teacher has the task of deciding how much can be taught and then of choosing from among the many possibilities the most important things to teach. How does he make these choices? The following steps are suggested for selecting the subject matter of a course:

1. *Refine the objectives.* When a course is initially scheduled its objectives are defined in a general way. For example, if the decision is made to offer a course in interior decorating, it is also decided in advance whether the course is intended for professional training or for housewives. It is also probably deter-

mined in advance whether the emphasis will be on apartments, low-income houses, or high-income houses. In general, it is known that the course will deal with color, fabrics, furniture, design, layout, painting, repairing, and wall paper.

There is, of course, enough to learn about any one of these subjects to warrant a full course for each one, so the teacher knows in advance that he will have to narrow his objectives to what can be accomplished in a short course.

At the first meeting with his group he will probably survey the field and explore the various possible channels of study open to the students. If he is wise, he will then discuss with the students their own particular interests and problems. Together they will limit their objectives to what can be covered in the time they will have.

2. *Determine the content.* After the goals have been set, the teacher must decide what kinds of facts, skills, attitudes, appreciation, and understanding must be taught in order to achieve these goals. His task now is to survey the possible things that might be learned and to select those that will contribute most directly to the specific objectives of this particular group.

In making this survey the teacher will call upon his own experience and insights and those of the students. He may also examine the outlines used by other teachers in the same subject. He will certainly acquaint himself with the texts, periodicals, pamphlets, and other literature in the field. He may consult with practicing experts about their ideas concerning what should be taught.

3. *Organize the subject matter.* The things to be learned should be organized into a sequence that will have unity and coherence. It is only through planning of this kind that one can be certain of working toward consistent goals and of fitting the various parts of the course together into a harmonious whole. Organization also eliminates waste of time and energy and insures logical progress.

There are at least five ways to organize subject matter on a logical basis. One method is chronological, from present to past or from past to present. This is usually used in history courses. A second method is to move from the specific to the general,

from the simple to the complex. Biology courses are frequently organized in this way, with the simple forms of life being considered first and the complex animal organisms being discussed last. A third method uses logical progression according to a sequence of principles or laws, as in the case of geometry. A fourth method is based on frequency of use. In spelling and in foreign languages, for example, those words that are used most frequently are learned first. A fifth method is to move from the general to the specific, an approach frequently used in the social sciences.

It may be desirable in some situations to organize a course without regard to logical sequence. In courses in which psychological therapy is an objective, for instance, it is usually found more successful to permit the group to discuss whatever its members feel like discussing at the time. Courses can be organized around developing interests or problems and still have inherent unity.

The usual process of organization is, first, to draft a tentative outline in such a way that the simple things are taught first, with the material gradually becoming more difficult as the course proceeds. Then it is necessary to break this outline down into units that are complete and teachable in themselves. Organization into units permits the teacher and the students to keep track of where they are and to plan their work efficiently. Ideally, there should be one unit for each class meeting, although they are frequently shorter or longer. The units may be according to topical heading, such as (to return to our interior decoration course) "Modern Furniture," or they may be in terms of problems, such as "Buying Modern Furniture."

While the teacher should do a thorough and careful job of selecting and organizing the subject matter of a course, there is danger in focusing too much attention on the *things* to be taught. The good teacher will always remember that he is teaching people, not subject matter.

## Methods of Teaching

The teacher has a wide variety of methods to call upon in helping his students to learn. He should understand the pecu-

liar characteristics, purposes, advantages, and disadvantages of each method in order to choose the one in each situation that will most effectively serve the needs of the students. Exhibit 2 summarizes the characteristics, the types of interaction between teacher and students, and the advantages and disadvantages of nine basic methods.

### THE LECTURE

The lecture is so universally used in traditional education that in many minds it is synonymous with teaching. In adult education, however, and even in many formal schools, it is coming to be depended upon less and less as skill is gained in using methods involving a greater degree of student participation.

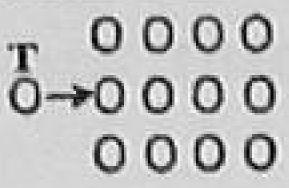
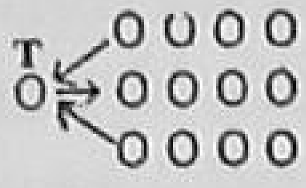
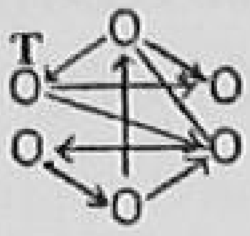
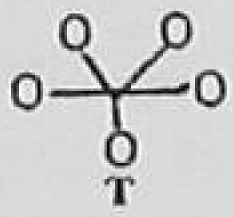
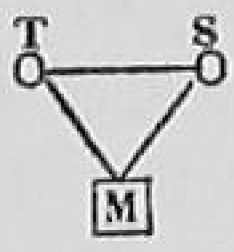
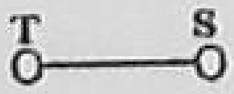
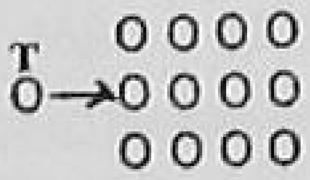
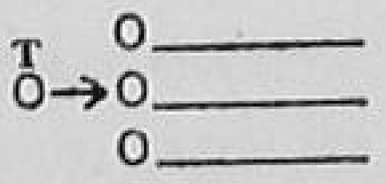
The lecture is probably the most efficient method for presenting a large number of facts in a short period of time. That is its greatest value. It is useful, therefore, in introducing new subjects, in summarizing the literature in a field, in recapitulating course work, and in integrating diverse materials, ideas, and concepts into an orderly system of thought.

The lecture is largely a one-way process, from teacher to students. It does not allow for much interaction between students and teacher or among students. A lecture can in only a very general sense take into account the needs, interests, and feelings of individual students. A really great lecturer, however, seems to be able to overcome many of these obstacles. By getting to know the students, or at least a representative group of them, he can rebuild his lectures according to their needs. By encouraging interruptions he can introduce some interaction. But probably more effectively than by these mechanical devices, a great lecturer can by his own attitude and personality convey a feeling of warmth, enthusiasm, and understanding which establishes a bond between him and the students. A truly great lecturer adds a note of inspiration to the learning process that is absent in the other methods.

What makes a good lecture? In addition to the human qualities just described, a good lecture should have these characteristics: It should be well organized, with ideas developed in a

EXHIBIT 2

## METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

| Method | Chief Characteristic | Interaction Pattern | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Lecture | Information-giving |  | Information is concentrated<br>Good organization of material | Relative passiveness of students |
| 2. Question and Answer | Questioning by students<br>or<br>Questioning by teacher |  | Student response | Formality; threatening or boring; non-creative |
| 3. Discussion<br>a. Socratic<br>b. Leader-centered<br>c. Group-centered | High degree of group interaction |  | Student participation; interest; use of experience | Looseness of organization |
| 4. Project<br>a. Individual<br>b. Group | Investigation of problem as a whole thru co-operative effort |  | Group or individual responsibility; actual experience; interest. Accomplishment. | Wasted effort |
| 5. Laboratory | Working with materials |  | First-hand experience, Guided practice, multi-sensory experience. | Time-consuming |
| 6. Apprenticeship | Learning by doing under tutelage |  | Practical application | Limited to experience of leader |
| 7. Demonstration and visual aids | Illustration of processes by teacher |  | Visualization of process | Limited participation |
| 8. Individual Investigation<br>a. Undirected<br>b. Directed | Trial and Error | | Immediacy | Lack of interaction |
| 9. Drill | Practice |  | Repeated experience | Boredom, overtraining |

logical sequence. For every generalization there should be an illustration that is drawn from experiences familiar to the students. The lecture should start with the simpler materials and

move to the more complex. It should relate present material to past and future materials. The main points should be listed, enlarged upon in turn, and then reviewed. Finally, the main ideas should be summarized and the conclusions drawn.

### THE QUESTION AND ANSWER

Somewhat less formal than the lecture, but often used in conjunction with it, the question and answer, or recitation, method allows for interaction between the teacher and the students. Usually it is based on assignments which the students presumably prepare. The teacher questions the students about the assignment and they recite their answers. This method also permits the students to ask questions of the teacher in order to improve their understanding of the material.

The question and answer method enables the teacher to determine whether or not the students understand the subject matter and whether or not they understand what they are saying. It has the disadvantages of permitting little or no interaction among the students, of possibly being threatening to some students and therefore creating an obstacle to their learning, and of being boring if the recitations merely go over material that is known to most of the class.

### GROUP DISCUSSION

Group discussion is coming to be regarded by leaders in the teaching profession as a basic method of adult education, supplanting to a large extent the lecture. There are several reasons for this trend. One is that so many efficient methods for the dissemination of information have been developed in the twentieth century. Getting the facts is no longer a major undertaking for people who can listen to the radio, read the newspapers and magazines, and have the world's finest books available without cost within a few blocks of their homes. The major problem in our culture is to "internalize" the many facts we know into our own thought processes—to make them usable in terms of our own problems.

Another reason is that adults have a rich background of expe-

rience on which the educational processes can draw. Since these experiences grow directly out of the kinds of problems with which the group is concerned, they are frequently more valid as source material for group learning than some more abstract text would be.

Discussion is an effective method for bringing abstract or unknown facts within the scope of our known experiences, thereby helping us to make these facts a part of ourselves. Discussion is the process whereby two or more people express, clarify, and pool their knowledge, experiences, opinions, and feelings. It is a co-operative process, in which several minds work together on a basis of equality and mutual respect toward either understanding or agreement.

The last statement suggests that discussion might have two purposes: understanding or agreement. It is important to recognize the difference, for discussion has sometimes been criticized because it does not always end in agreement. Agreement is desirable, however, only in those discussions that have some kind of action as their purpose, such as in committee meetings. Where the purpose is understanding facts, principles, problems, and people, the best kinds of insights may come from those discussions in which individual differences are so great that agreement is impossible.

Group discussion has other values as an educational method. As is indicated in the "Methods of Instruction" chart, it is the method that achieves the highest degree of interaction among the students and teacher. The key concept in group discussion, as Lyman Bryson points out, is that "the students here considered not only have opinions but have a right to express them."[3] Every person in a discussion group is considered to have a valuable contribution to make, and he is encouraged to participate on a basis of equality with all other members. While different members may perform different functions for the group, such as to stimulate, to record, to summarize, to criticize, to analyze, and so forth, there is no authority in a discussion group whose word must be accepted as the final answer.

[3] Lyman Bryson, *Adult Education* (New York: American Book Co., 1936), p. 90.

In such a climate, students tend to develop the ability to think independently and to express themselves clearly, with both confidence and humility.

Another value of group discussion is that it is almost certain to be keyed to the needs and interests of the students, since they are the ones who decide what is to be talked about. For this reason, group discussion is likely to hold the students' interest. Good discussion is never boring. It can be thrillingly creative.

Although group discussion has many advantages as an educational method, it also has definite limitations. It would be foolish to say that discussion is the best method for every learning situation. For instance, when the learning situation requires the presentation of authoritative or technical information, a lecture or motion picture might best do that job. Certainly in teaching a motor skill, such as golfing or typing, discussion is not appropriate. The frequent criticism of discussion as a pooling of ignorance probably arises out of the use of this method for purposes for which it is not suited.

Group discussion is likely to be the best method when the purpose is to develop social attitudes, relate knowledge to experience, influence personal values, deepen understanding, reach decisions, or plan for action.

The basic idea of discussion can be combined with a number of other methods to produce different variations:

1. The *lecture forum*, in which a formal lecture by an authority is followed by a period for questions and discussion by the audience. This method has the advantage of supplying facts and information in an orderly, organized presentation. Its disadvantages include too great dependence on one person's point of view and the difficulty of involving the audience in more than perfunctory questioning.

2. The *symposium*, in which three or more persons with different points of view on a several-sided question provide the presentation, and the audience directs questions or comments to them. This method removes dependence on a single point of view and tends to stimulate greater freedom in audience

participation. Care must be exercised, however, in obtaining speakers with different opinions but with equal ability.

3. The *panel discussion,* in which several people with different points of view or backgrounds of knowledge and experience engage in a conversational discussion before the audience. This method provides an easy transition from presentation to discussion by the audience. It requires a skillful moderator, however, who can prevent the panel from becoming a series of set speeches.

4. The *debate forum,* consisting of one speaker for and one speaker against a proposition, followed by questions and comments from the audience. This method is useful in sharpening issues, but there is constant danger that it will be dominated by emotions rather than by clear thinking.

5. The *forum dialogue,* or public conversation, in which two people carry on an informal conversation concerning a subject on which they may or may not have opposing points of view, followed by discussion by the audience. The informality of this method of presentation establishes an atmosphere in which the audience feels free to participate.

6. The *movie forum,* which substitutes one or more motion pictures for speakers. Following the presentation of the film, which should be carefully selected in terms of its value in raising real issues, the audience discusses the subject of the film. This can be a most fruitful kind of discussion if the leader constantly refers questions back to the audience and brings their experiences into the solution of problems raised in the film.

7. The *group interview,* in which an "inquiring reporter" interviews several people on the platform and then throws the discussion open to the audience. This method permits a leader to focus the contributions of speakers on the problems with which the group is primarily concerned.

These variations are generally used with large audiences, with the result that the discussion period becomes more a question and answer period than a group discussion as we

have defined it. These techniques are most useful in obtaining information from experts, clarifying issues, and gaining an understanding of different points of view.

## THE PROJECT METHOD

Projects are jobs or tasks that grow out of the training being carried on in a course, organized into units that can be developed on either an individual or a group basis.

An individual project is illustrated by a course in "Starting Your Own Business," in which each student was asked to prepare a complete prospectus on some business in which he was personally interested. The students compiled folders showing how they determined the proper location for their businesses, how they would organize their personnel, how they would finance the first year, the shop or store layout, advertising and sales plans, and accounting systems. These folders were then discussed in class.

The group project, which has the additional values that come from co-operative effort, is illustrated by the course in "Practical Interior Decoration," in which one group of five students worked out a plan for a three-room apartment, another group worked on ranch-type houses, and so forth.

The project method stimulates interest and gives the students an opportunity to pursue their special interests. It also enables the students to obtain practical experience and to gain a sense of accomplishment.

## THE LABORATORY METHOD

In the laboratory method the subject matter or theory is studied first and is then tested through actual experiment. The best-known examples of this method are in the teaching of chemistry and physics. It can be used in any situation, however, in which theory can be translated into practice. In social psychology, for instance, group reaction to various stimuli (such as a shout of "Fire!") can be discussed and then tested by actually trying it in the group.

The laboratory method has the advantage of giving the student actual experience and of appealing to a variety of senses.

Its greatest disadvantage is that it requires more time than most other methods.

### APPRENTICESHIP

Apprenticeship is a method in which a student learns by working closely with a skilled practitioner. It is "learning by watching and doing." Apprenticeship has been used most extensively in the skilled trades, such as plumbing, carpentry, and masonry. It has a close parallel, however, in the assistantships in academic institutions. Its great value is the practical application of the things learned, but the amount that can be learned is limited by the skill, knowledge, and experience of the practitioner with whom the apprentice works.

### DEMONSTRATION

Demonstration consists of the illustration of a process by the teacher, usually in connection with a lecture. For example, a physics teacher may demonstrate the law of gravity by dropping an object. Demonstration helps the student to visualize a process that might be difficult to understand completely from verbal description. It has the disadvantage, however, of giving little opportunity for student participation.

### INDIVIDUAL INVESTIGATION

In individual investigation a student undertakes to learn something through his own efforts. The most universal method of learning is undirected real experience, a process of trial and error or success. Infants learn to talk by trying out sounds until they hit on one that commands a response from their elders. Most of the things adults know about the business of living have been learned through individual investigation—by trying things out until they find something that works, or by seeking out answers to problems as they arise.

The efficiency of individual investigation as a method of learning can be greatly increased if it is carried on under guidance. An experienced teacher can help students to eliminate some of the blind alleys and can guide them into the more rewarding channels of investigation. This method has the

disadvantage of providing little opportunity for interaction with others who are seeking the same goals.

DRILL

Drill is the process of learning by repeated practice. Spelling was once taught by requiring students to write each word many times. Most physical skills must be perfected by practicing them for long periods, as great pianists, typists, and tennis players will testify.

While drill seems to be necessary in many kinds of learning, there is serious danger that it may become monotonous and cause the student to develop a revulsion to the thing being learned, as many non-great pianists will testify.

SUMMARY

These are the principal methods of teaching. Each one has unique characteristics that render it peculiarly useful in certain situations and out of place in others. Usually the methods are most effective when used in combination—as when a lecture includes several demonstrations, is followed by a question and answer period, and then is discussed. Over the span of a whole course the teacher may find an opportunity to use almost every method effectively.

## The Materials of Teaching

By materials of teaching is meant sources of knowledge, such as literature and audio-visual aids. Each type of material has unique characteristics that qualify it to fill certain specific needs in the learning process. A good teacher is familiar with all types of materials and their special uses. He plans their use in such a way as to exploit their peculiar qualities.

LITERATURE AND TEXTBOOKS

The most universally used material of teaching is the standardized textbook. Most textbooks have been written for the purpose of teaching a given amount of subject matter to a well-

defined age group. They are frequently supplemented with general literature which has not been standardized for specific teaching situations. Literature and textbooks are used in teaching in at least three general wavs:

1. *The use of the text as the basis of the organization of the course.* In text-centered courses, reading assignments are made and discussion is based on these readings. This type of instruction is found most often in the teaching of science, history, and mathematics. It is obvious that rigid adherence to a textbook does not leave much room for individual differences, student needs and interests, or consideration of problems arising out of the experience of the students. It puts the focus on subject matter rather than on persons.

2. *The use of literature to obtain general background.* Many teachers provide their students with bibliographies, usually with annotations, and give them considerable latitude as to which of the books they read. The optional use of literature permits each student to pursue his own interests to some degree, and it does not tie the teacher to a rigid pattern of organization. Literature can be used in this way as a basis for discussion, for filling in on lectures, in connection with projects, or in individual investigation. The writing of interpretive or critical reports may help the students to integrate their reading into the main stream of the course.

3. *The use of literature as a reference resource.* Literature may be used as a source of information to which students may go when the need for more knowledge arises. For example, if a group that is studying interior decoration finds that its progress is blocked because it lacks knowledge about Victorian furniture, the teacher can refer it to literature on that subject. When students have a specific purpose in mind they will learn much more from their reading.

There are occasions on which each of the above uses of literature can be employed to good advantage. The teacher should be sensitive to the needs of each situation and should use the literature in the way that best serves those needs.

## AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

So many developments have recently occurred in the field of audio-visual aids that many people have been tempted to go overboard for them. Even the most glamorous, most novel, and most effective audio-visual device can never be more than an aid to teaching. It cannot be the teacher, although on far too many occasions a motion picture has been used as if it were.

Audio-visual aids contribute to learning through stimulating interest, through appealing to a number of the senses, through concentrating a great deal of information into a concise form, and through providing an experience that is common to all the students. The teacher should understand the specific characteristics of each aid that will make it the best choice for use in a particular situation.

The following steps are involved in the effective use of teaching aids:

1. *Planning by the instructor.* The introduction of audio-visual aids into a course should be planned to fit in with the methods being used and with the subject matter development, thus forming a part of an integrated program.

2. *Selection of the aid.* The available aids should be carefully reviewed by the teacher until he is completely familiar with their content and quality. Only those aids that are clear, simple, interesting, and to the point should be selected.

3. *Preparation of equipment.* It is extremely important in the use of most teaching aids that whatever equipment is needed be set up and tested before it is used. For example, if films are to be used the projector should be in place, the screen should be set up, the room should be darkened, and the chairs should be arranged in the proper order. Charts should be in proper sequence. Blackboards should be clean, and chalk and erasers should be handy.

4. *Preparation of the student.* The students should understand the purpose of the aid and should have an idea of what to look for in it.

5. *Summary of the information.* When a large amount of information is presented it will increase the aid's effectiveness if the points are summed up afterward.

6. *Discussion of the information.* In order to be sure that the information presented by the aid is meaningful to the students it should be discussed and related to other aspects of their learning.

The principal audio-visual aids available for classroom use are the following:

*The Motion Picture*

A rapidly increasing number of both sound and silent motion pictures is available for instructional use. Many of these films have been made specifically for teaching; others have been adapted to this purpose. They are readily available everywhere, on either a free or rental basis, through public libraries, school systems, universities, community organizations, and commercial distributors. In many localities there are film councils that give free advice concerning the use of motion pictures.

The motion picture is one of the most realistic ways in which outside experience can be brought into the classroom. For this reason there is special danger of its being considered more than just a tool of teaching.

*The Film Strip*

The film strip is a series of still pictures mounted on a continuous celluloid strip that are flashed on a large screen through a projector. They have been found to be particularly effective in training military personnel and new industrial workers in technical operations, because the images can be held on the screen until they are thoroughly assimilated. Some film strips are accompanied by recordings of explanatory comments, while others provide the teacher with manuals explaining how they should be used.

*Exhibits*

There is hardly a subject that is not capable of portrayal through exhibits. This technique has been most highly developed by natural history and art museums and public libraries, which are always co-operative in helping teachers arrange exhibits for their own groups. The most common materials

used in exhibits are photographs, literature, works of graphic art, models, manufactured products, and student work. Considerable skill is required in arranging an exhibit so that its purpose is clear, it is interesting, and it develops its story logically.

*Radio and Television*

Radio and television are used, but they are still in the experimental stage educationally. The "Town Meeting of the Air" and other broadcasts of forums serve as the jumping-off point for discussions on current events. Some public school systems have installed loud speakers in their classrooms that can be used with regular broadcasts or with special productions by the school itself. There has been some experimentation with the teaching of home study courses by radio.

*Recordings*

A wide variety of recordings and transcriptions is available for teaching use. The most commonly known are standard musical records, invaluable in courses in music appreciation. Commercial producers list complete language courses in albums, excerpts from plays, famous speeches, and portrayals of historic events. Transcriptions of some radio programs are available through motion picture distributors. Since recordings appeal only to the hearing sense, there is danger that the students' attention will wander. In a number of situations, however, recordings have proved very effective.

*Models*

It is frequently possible to obtain from a manufacturer, or to construct, a working model of some process being studied in a course. An example is the combustion engine with removable sections that show the inner parts.

*Charts*

One of the best-known of all visual aids is the wall chart. Without it geography would be practically unteachable. Chart manufacturers have greatly improved their techniques and enlarged their scope, until charts are now available on almost every subject. They are especially valuable in presenting com-

plex ideas and processes in an easily understood manner through the use of symbols and flow lines. Charts can, of course, be constructed by the students.

*Blackboard*

The most universally used visual aid is the common blackboard. While many teachers have not progressed beyond using the blackboard for the listing of statements, problems, formulae, and diagrams, it is capable of the same kind of skillful use of symbols and flow lines that are found in charts.

*Pageants*

The pageant offers special opportunities for the development of an understanding of historical and current events. It has the additional advantage of involving a high degree of creative student participation.

### FIELD TRIPS

The field trip is a method of instruction in the sense that the students collect information about something they are studying by actually going out and observing it. For example, a class studying slum conditions would certainly have a much better understanding of the problem if they visited a slum area. Field trips are most commonly made to industrial plants, places of historical, geographical, geological, and sociological interest, and governmental organizations.

If the field trip is to be most effective it should be well planned, with proper transportation and guidance facilities, and it should be explained and discussed in advance.

### ROLE-PLAYING

Role-playing, which is described in detail in Chapter 4, is another means of instruction that might well be used more widely in informal adult education. It is one of the most effective methods for gaining insight into human relations.

## Measuring Student Progress

Good teaching requires that there be some way to measure what the students are learning. The teacher must know whether

or not his methods and materials are effective. It is equally important for the student to have some way of measuring his progress, since a sense of achievement is one of the chief motivations for learning.

The standard method for measuring student progress has been the written test. To most adults the words "test," "quiz," and "examination" call forth such unpleasant memories that it is often difficult to use them in voluntary adult groups. We have not yet been able to develop satisfactory substitute methods for measuring some kinds of learning. The result is that we find some adult groups filling out "inventories" or writing "summaries" or solving "case problems." The essential difference is not so much in the change of name as in the fact that competition among the students has been eliminated. If the purpose is to measure the progress of an individual, then there is no point in comparing him with others. The comparison should rather be between what he is now and what he was before. Thus, in informal adult education, tests—when they are given at all—are not always graded, at least in the traditional sense. They may be analyzed in terms of significant factors, and then recommendations are made.

A teacher is constantly making subjective evaluations about each student's progress. He is sensitive to hundreds of little signs that give indication as to how well the student is doing. He forms judgments on the basis of his observation of the student's participation and written work. The student, also, has feelings of his own about how well he is doing. While these subjective evaluations of the teacher and the students are an important clue to student progress, and in some cases they seem to be the only ones available, they are not as reliable as more objective data.

Objective information can be obtained from various kinds of tests. The most familiar type is the essay test, in which the student writes answers to questions designed to show how much he has learned and how well he understands it. A newer type is the "objective test," in which a student indicates whether he thinks a statement is true or false, or in which he makes a choice from among several statements. The objective test

is more adaptable, easier to administer and score, and can be standardized in such a way as to provide an accurate basis of camparison. It reduces to a minimum the personal judgment of the teacher.

Another kind of test that is being used increasingly, although it requires specialized training, is the projective type of test, in which the student projects his personality into various situations. The best known of these tests is the Rohrschach "ink blot" test, in which the subject constructs an imaginary story or describes impressions suggested by a series of standardized ink blots. Similar tests have been devised using a series of pictures. A skillful analysis of the student's comments provides a great deal of information about his attitudes, social adjustment, and personality structure. It should be emphasized, however, that these tests can be administered and interpreted only by trained psychologists.

The final test of any learning, of course, is how well the individual can use it in a practical situation. It is often possible to have students demonstrate their learnings under actual working conditions. Examples of this kind of testing are found in the skilled trades and in such other skill subjects as typing and shorthand.

It is important to recognize that there are many different kinds of learning to be measured. The teacher must know which kind of learning each test is designed to measure and how accurate it is. For example, most essay and objective tests are designed to measure chiefly the number of *facts* acquired and the *understanding* of principles and relationships. Progress in learning *skills* must usually be measured by observation of the use of the skills under controlled conditions. Changes in *attitude* or emotional development may be measured through paper and pencil attitude tests, projective tests, or controlled observation. While it is essential for the teacher to observe and test the progress of his students, he must remember that the construction, administering, and interpreting of tests is a highly specialized field, and he should not experiment with unfamiliar tests without expert guidance.

# 4

## GROUP DYNAMICS AND THE ART OF LEADERSHIP

THE LEADERSHIP of adult groups has often been a nerve-wracking job involving planning for people, arbitrating between people, steering people, thinking for people, and checking on people. No wonder it has been difficult to get persons to accept leadership responsibility. A more comfortable and more effective concept of leadership is rapidly emerging, however. It will be our purpose in this chapter to learn something of the elements of "group dynamics," on which this new concept is based, and their various applications.

### Stages in the Development of a Group

It is possible to think of a group as a living organism, with needs it seeks to satisfy and other characteristics of the kind possessed by individual human beings. Groups seem to express their frustrations in much the same way that individuals do—by aggressiveness, withdrawal, disintegration, rebellion, and so forth. Groups seem to go through much the same kind of development as do individual human beings. During its beginning stage, for example, a group exhibits many of the characteristics of an infant child. It is dependent upon the guiding hand of a parent (the leader). It seeks his approval. It has difficulty in co-ordinating the efforts of its members. Its goals are likely to be poorly defined, so that it moves first in one direction and then in another. The first few meetings of a new

group are likely to be taken up largely with the individual members testing themselves out on the group and trying to find acceptable status in it. There is likely to be considerable difficulty in communication. Terms will have to be defined quite often, and there will be frequent verbal misunderstandings. The list of infantile behavior characteristics of the group could be extended. They appear, regardless of the relative maturity of the individuals in the group.

A later stage of development, like that of an adolescent individual, is characterized by the struggle between the desire for independence and the fear of leaving the protection of a guiding hand. A group has learned to do certain things so well that it feels capable of acting independently. Yet it is not sure that its judgment is sound. A group in this stage will frequently disagree with its leader and may express open hostility toward him. It may even request a change of leaders. But if it is threatened with being left without a leader it will quickly retreat.

When a group reaches "maturity" it functions as a well-integrated, independent organism. It accepts responsibility for its own actions. It faces its problems and solves them objectively. It divides its tasks among its members in keeping with their abilities. It organizes its procedures according to the requirements of each situation. The members of a mature group have shifted the center of their attention from their personal concerns (such as their status in the group) to the group's concerns (such as making a decision that will be in the interest of all). There is evidence of group maturity when individual members make their contributions in the spirit that once they are given to the group they are no longer personal property that must be defended against attack or change.

The wise leader will understand this process of natural growth and will do whatever is necessary to assist the group toward maturity. The leader who does not understand the process or who refuses to "give up his authority" or "lose his control of the group" can easily keep a group in an infantile state, completely dependent upon him. On the other hand, a leader to whom permissiveness is a rigid principle can seri-

ously retard the development of a group by failing to give it the kind of assistance it needs.

## Concepts of Leadership

There are at least three approaches to the leadership of groups. They have some things in common, but each has its own emphasis. It is seldom that any one of them is used to the exclusion of the others. Almost any leader can detect some of each in his own practice, and his practice may vary with circumstances. Each approach is appropriate in some situations and inappropriate in others. This discussion is to enable one to identify the characteristics of each, and to select the one most appropriate for a given situation.

### SOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

The Socratic leader as an interrogator or cross-examiner, with a high degree of responsibility for steering the discussion "to the heart of the matter." This method has become popularized through the Great Books courses, in which it is general practice to use two leaders who share the responsibility for questioning and guiding. The focus of attention in the Socratic method is largely on subject matter. The widespread success of the Great Books courses indicates that the method is an effective one for the purposes it seeks to accomplish. It has serious limitations, however, when other outcomes are desired.

### LEADER-CENTERED LEADERSHIP

What might be called the leader-centered point of view is concerned with the growth of the group, but it regards the leader as a sort of democratic director of group development. Most of the existing manuals of group leadership are concerned with techniques that can be used to guide the group toward desired ends. And a good deal of the responsibility for determining the "desired" ends is placed on the leader.

Here are some of the generally accepted principles or rules for this approach to discussion leadership:

1. The leader should prepare carefully by reviewing the

literature on the subject to be discussed, selecting the major points that should be brought out, and preparing a flexible outline. He may have to abandon his original plan of procedure, but at least he should have something to work from.

2. The leader should know as much as possible about the members of the group in advance of the first meeting. By understanding the needs, interests, and points of view of the individual members he can help to draw them into the discussion and to steer the thinking in directions that will be most helpful to them.

3. The leader should introduce the subject, possibly after having each member introduce himself, in such a way as to start immediate discussion. He may do this by skillfully opening up conflicts he knows to exist in the group. He may introduce matters upon which agreements can easily be reached at the beginning of the meeting, so as to attain some feeling of unity before conflicts are allowed to appear. He may bring in a prepared list of questions to which he can refer whenever talk seems to wane. Indeed, there is a wide variety of prepared lists of questions available from many sources on almost every conceivable subject for use by the harried discussion leader.

4. The leader should let the group decide what its goals are to be, and then should guide the discussion toward those goals and keep it on the topic. The leader must be tactful in bringing someone who is wandering off the subject back into line, but he must somehow do it.

5. The leader should always keep in mind that his chief task is to ask questions. Questions from the leader start discussion, lead the talk into new channels, bring out different points of view. Questions that ask *why* or *when* anything is true are excellent. The leader asks questions if others do not, but he gives the members every opportunity to ask questions of one another.

6. The leader should draw out shy members so that everyone participates in the discussion. He may do this by asking a member, by name, for his ideas or comments on a statement that has been made or a question that has been raised.

7. The leader has a definite responsibility to prevent any individual from monopolizing the discussion. There are various devices for doing this without squelching the bore (everyone agrees he must not be squelched), such as interrupting him when he takes a breath, with "That's a good point, Mr. X. What do you think, Mr. Y?"

8. The leader should relate generalizations brought out in the discussion to the problems and experiences of the group. He can raise a question like, "How does what has just been said apply to your situation, Mr. Z?"

9. One of the leader's most important tasks is to review periodically during a discussion the points made, the questions overlooked, the information needed, and the existing agreements and differences of opinion. He should try to point out the progress made so far in the discussion and to lead toward the next logical step.

10. When the time arrives for the discussion to end, the leader should summarize what has been accomplished and what the next steps seem to be. He will be sure to bring out the key ideas, organize them in a way easy to remember, and add points he believes need to be included.

The function of the leader, according to this point of view, is summarized in one of the manuals of discussion leadership:

> The leader's job is to learn the chief interests of members, if possible before discussions; to start discussions; to keep them going; to be ready to repeat main points of the issues as discussed; to turn the discussion one way or another. He starts things, keeps them going, and winds them up, but does not do them.[1]

This paragraph would indicate that control of the group is vested in the leader, although he is urged to exercise that control democratically.

Without doubt such principles and suggestions as these have helped discussion leaders to get results. Having a set of rules to fall back on gives a novice some sense of security. There is

[1] LeRoy E. Bowman, *How to Lead Discussion* (New York: The Woman's Press, 1934), p. 10.

danger, however, that poorly trained leaders using this approach will tend to be authoritarian. Even the most skilled leaders may become subtle *manipulators* of their groups. For, according to this conception of leadership, the ultimate responsibility for the group lies with the leader.

Although the leader-centered method may frequently produce good results, as measured by such yardsticks as amount of subject matter covered in an orderly fashion, extent of participation, and conclusions reached, some questions may be raised about its long-term social and educational effects. May not this kind of leadership tend to make the group members dependent upon the leader? May not this dependence lead to a loss of confidence and self-direction on the part of the group members? Carried to its logical conclusion, does not this method imply a philosophy of social control by a select few—the skillful leaders who are able subtly to guide their groups in the direction they desire? Educationally, does this method of leadership lead to the mature development of the individual as a self-directing, fully responsible person?

### GROUP-CENTERED LEADERSHIP

A newer approach to group leadership has grown out of experimental research conducted by the late Kurt Lewin at the Child Welfare Research Station of the University of Iowa and his co-workers in the Research Center for Group Dynamics now located at the University of Michigan. Their conclusions have been extended and supported by studies in such diverse fields as counseling and psychotherapy, social psychology, industrial relations, and education. The central lesson in all these studies is that leadership—and, indeed, all aspects of group functioning—is a problem for the group to solve, and is not the peculiar responsibility of any individual. To distinguish this approach from others we have chosen to label it the group-centered approach.

In one of his early studies of group behavior Kurt Lewin and his associates investigated the effects of three different kinds of leadership on various groups. *Democratic* leadership, in which the leader helped the group to organize itself and to

make its own decisions, proved consistently to produce the best results in terms of things accomplished, co-operative relationships, and personal growth. The groups under *authoritarian* leadership, in which the leader maintained rigid control, produced less and encountered a great deal more friction and frustration. The groups that scored the lowest on all counts were those under *laissez-faire* leadership, in which the leader remained completely passive.

Spurred on by the successes of these early experiments, a great deal of energy has been devoted in recent years to research in group behavior. "Group dynamics," according to two of the pioneer leaders in the field, "endeavors to study the why of what happens in groups. It is an area of research in the process by which groups work—discuss, reach decisions, plan action, and carry it into effect. . . . It is the application of research findings in producing greater group productivity, in developing the growth of groups, and in improving individuals in their sensitivity to what is happening in the group and in their ability to assume more efficiently group leadership and membership responsibility."[2]

By pooling the findings from research in group dynamics with the discoveries in other areas of social science, especially psychotherapy, education, and industrial relations, it is possible to set up some assumptions about group behavior and to suggest some tentative guiding principles of group-centered leadership:

*Some Assumptions Underlying Group-centered Leadership*

1. *Although a group has many of the characteristics of a single organism from its earliest stages, it is composed of individuals who think of themselves as separate entities and who come into the group seeking the satisfaction of personal needs and desires.* The problem, in terms of the group's welfare, is to help the individual satisfy his needs through serving the group needs, rather than by exploiting the group for selfish purposes. There is a wide choice of ways to satisfy the need for recognition, ranging from bragging and monopolizing the dis-

[2] Leland P. Bradford and Ronald Lippitt, *Group Dynamics and Education* (Washington: National Education Association, 1949), p. 7.

cussion (individual-centered behavior) to contributing useful leadership services to the group (group-centered behavior).

2. *Each individual has a fundamental urge to grow—to achieve greater maturity and self-direction.* Growth is encouraged in an atmosphere of freedom and mutual acceptance of responsibilities. It is assumed, therefore, that individual growth will take place best in a group that is free from authoritarian control and maturely accepts responsibility for its own direction.

3. *Each individual exists in the center of his own private world of experience and reacts to reality as he sees it.* Any attempt, therefore, to impose another person's (such as a leader's) view of reality on him is doomed to failure, even though he may seem outwardly to acquiesce and understand. A new experience, fact, or attitude is meaningful to a person only in terms of his own highly personal realm of experience.

4. *Each person has his own concept of himself and tends to reject or deny anything that is inconsistent with this concept.* An individual feels threatened whenever judgments are made about him (or implied in actions) that contradict his concept of himself. His reaction to this threat is to become defensive and hostile. A person cannot, therefore, be forced or even persuaded into changing a self-concept that is not in accordance with reality; but in an atmosphere that is free from threat, free from judgment about persons, an individual can begin to look at himself objectively and, of his own volition, revise his self-concept. The meaning of this assumption for group leadership is obvious: A climate of warm understanding, acceptance, and permissiveness is essential to good group functioning and good learning.

5. *A person who understands and accepts himself, and feels that others understand and accept him, will necessarily show more understanding and acceptance of others.* There is mounting clinical evidence that a real change takes place in one's attitude toward other people after he has had the experience of being fully accepted by others. This fact is probably the psychological heart of the Judeo-Christian religion. An attitude of love toward people engenders the same attitude in them.

6. *Every group is a social system.* Wherever people meet together they tend to systematize their relationships. Friendship patterns form, circles and cliques come into being. Status levels tend to be created with distinct symbols (such as manner of dress or speech, or signs of deference) setting off one status from another. Group efficiency is seriously impaired when its social system becomes stratified. Group members are likely to divert their energy from the group problem to competition for status; co-operative relationships may degenerate into intergroup rivalries; and the basis of efficient communication among group members may be destroyed through deliberate misinterpretation by hostile factions. The best social organization for group life is a one-level, democratic social system.

7. *Groups, like individuals, resist change.* Present ways of doing things are almost always more comfortable than new ways—until the new ways are tried and found to be better. Resistance to change, if it is accepted as a normal reaction, can be turned to constructive use in helping a group grow into maturity. The points at which resistance occurs generally indicate the points at which change is most needed. A group can be helped to analyze the causes of its resistance objectively in a climate of acceptance and freedom, and to work out its own solutions. Resistance to change then becomes an instrument of progress.

## Guiding Principles of Group-centered Leadership

Growing out of the assumptions that underlie group-centered leadership are certain principles of operation. While these principles have been tested under a wide variety of conditions, they must still be taken tentatively until further research proves them more fully.

1. *Leadership is a function of the group, not of any individual.* The group is conceived as an independent, self-directing organism. A number of functions must be performed in its service if it is to operate efficiently, of which the leadership functions are one type. It is more accurate to refer to "leader-

ship functions" than to refer to "a leader." For the leadership functions may at times be performed by several or all of the group members, as well as by a designated "leader."

This statement does not imply that there is never an individual who occupies the position of leader. In the early stages of group life there is a real need for one person who will take the initiative in helping the group to define its goals, organize itself, and establish operational procedures. There will always be a need, furthermore, for an individual to act as convener. But the sooner the leadership functions are dispersed among different members of the group, the more maturely and efficiently will it operate.

One device that speeds up this dispersal of leadership functions is the leadership team. If the group chairman is named before it meets (as in the case of many committees) it would be possible to name the other members of the leadership team at the same time. This practice has the advantage of starting the group off under the concept of the dispersal of leadership functions, but it has the disadvantage of denying the group a share in the selection of its initial leadership representatives. If the group selects its own chairman, it can select the other members of the leadership team at the same time.

In introducing group-centered leadership into a group, it may be desirable to limit the leadership team to functions that are already understood and accepted, such as those of the chairman, the recorder (or secretary), and the resource person. A less familiar function, which might well be introduced early in the process, is that of group observer, whose responsibilities will be described later. As the group gains experience in analyzing its needs and setting up services to fill them, it will find a number of additional functions its members can perform.

2. *Leadership is responsible for establishing the climate of the group.* The climate of a group is determined largely by the person who helps organize it. His actions can produce an atmosphere of competition and hostility, formality and reserve, criticism and threat, or permissiveness and freedom. If he regards himself as an authority or as possessing some kind of superi-

ority, his actions are likely to be of a directing type, and the group climate will be authoritarian. The group members will certainly feel somewhat restricted in what they can or cannot do, at least until they get the approval of the leader.

On the other hand, if the leader's attitude toward himself is that of a fellow-learner who has certain specialized functions in the situation, and if his atttiude toward the other members of the group is one of deep respect for their personal integrity and worth, the result will be a free and democratic climate. The leader's expression of respect will communicate to each individual an attitude of acceptance of him as a person with unique experience. When the individual feels that he is being understood and is being treated with respect, he will be relieved of the necessity of aggressively proving his independence and can turn without threatening his status to the problems facing the group. These attitudes of the leader produce a climate in which the group can develop a mature "group personality" characterized by a democratic unity and the mutual sharing of responsibility. Each member of the group becomes less self-conscious and more group-conscious.

3. *Leadership helps the group to define its purposes and objectives.* One method found useful in determining group objectives is to conduct a problem-census in which the members of the group state the problems they are concerned about that might be considered by the group. These can be listed, priorities can be assigned to them, and general objectives can be drawn from them. The leader is free to express his own needs as the needs of a member of the group, not as the desires of a superior.

The taking of a problem-census and the defining of objectives early in a group's life has several good effects. This is usually the only way in which the group will feel that it is dealing with important problems. It starts the group off on the basis of the interests of its members. It gives the group experience, from the beginning, in making successful decisions. It helps to build a "we-feeling" among group members.

The original census may not bring out all the problems of concern to the group, or even the most important ones. It is

generally helpful, therefore, for the group to restate its problems and objectives periodically.

4. *Leadership helps the group to organize itself.* When the group defines its objectives, it really is taking the first step in organizing itself, since a group's objectives greatly influence its form of organization. For example, a group that exists primarily for the purpose of receiving instruction is likely to put more emphasis on the role of resource leadership than would a group that exists for the purpose of social fellowship.

Usually the general form of organization—for instance, committee, club, special-interest group, fellowship group, or organized class—is determined by the situation causing the group to be organized. There are occasions, however, in which a group has a choice of the form of organization it wants.

Other organizational decisions may have to be made about such things as frequency, time and place of meeting, basis of financing, whether or not there is to be a written constitution, whether or not the group wants to have a name, and what the relationship of the group is to other groups, an agency, or the community.

Probably the most crucial decisions about organization are those having to do with the functions necessary to efficient group operation. These seem to be some of the functions that are being performed when a group is functioning well:[3]

a. Organizing the thinking of the group, the group member:
   (1) States, restates, or clarifies subject of discussion.
   Gives initial statement of problem; restates problem in same or similar manner to original statement; attempts to clarify the meaning of previous statements of problem.
   (2) Summarizes progress.
   Attempts to summarize progress group had made in its discussion up to that point or to define position group has attained relative to the goal or goals of the discussion.
   (3) Brings discussion back to main topic.
   Attempts to keep the group headed in the right direction,

[3] From A. L. Bryant, Master's Thesis, Boston University School of Education. Quoted in *Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development* (Washington: National Education Association, 1948), p. 126. Revised by author.

to bring it back from excursions into side issues or problems not pertinent to the original discussion topic.

(4) Raises problem of direction or goals.
This includes such comments as: "I don't see where this is going to lead us;" "It seems as though we are going in circles;" "What are we trying to do here anyway?" etc.

(5) Asks for clarification concerning the progress of the discussion or the position attained relative to the goal or goals of discussion.

(6) Integrates ideas or suggestions; pulls them together.

(7) Shows or clarifies relationships between or among ideas.

b. Elaborating the discussion, the group member

(1) Gives opinion.

(2) Gives information.

(3) Cites example, story.
Gives an appropriate illustration, story, or example of the point under consideration by the group.

(4) Cites authority.

(5) Suggests new possibilities:

(a) Course of action.

(b) Procedure for group or method of organizing group for the task.

(c) New way of handling difficulty.

(6) Raises problem or question for group to act upon.

c. Requesting clarification or further elaboration, the group member

(1) Asks opinion.

(2) Asks information.

(3) Asks suggestions.

(4) Requests restatement, redefinition, or further development of an idea presented in a previous participation.

d. Evaluating discussion content, the group member

(1) Attempts evaluation or constructive criticism of one or more previous participations.
Participant may either agree or disagree with what has gone before, but criticism must be directed at ideas and not at personalities.

(2) Suggests that further discussion of an idea is needed or that previous discussion has been inadequate.

e. Acting as group critic, the group member

(1) Evaluates or comments upon group functioning.

(2) Prods group or expresses need for group to:

(a) Take action.

(b) Come to a decision.

(c) Move along at a faster pace.

f. Increasing group solidarity, the group member
   (1) Encourages.
   Compliments another member on his thinking, his contributions to discussion, etc.; indicates understanding or acceptance; attempts to draw out another member by praise or encouragement; exclaims with satisfaction, pleasure, or enthusiasm; engages in friendly joking or laughter; praises group as a whole; encourages group to renew its efforts.
   (2) Mediates, harmonizes, relieves tension.
      (a) Third person attempting to bring agreement between two clashing points of view; shows factors common to both sides; attempts to isolate points on which there is a real difference of opinion and if possible to show how these differences may be reconciled; attempts to demonstrate that point on which parties differ is of little consequence.
      (b) Pours oil over troubled waters; attempts to cool off heated tempers.
      (c) Suggests that discussion of a point concerning which there is strong disagreement be dropped or postponed.
      (d) Jokes to relieve tension.
   (3) Facilitates flow of communication.
      (a) Helps another member to express his thoughts.
      (b) Expresses feelings of group.
      (c) Regulates flow of communication.
      (d) Attempts to keep communication channels open.

g. Serving as group memory, the group member
   Records the main points of discussion, agreements reached, decisions made, action to be taken. Reviews past actions for the group whenever necessary.

h. Acting as a good group member, the group member
   (1) Disciplines himself to facilitate group progress.
   (2) Admits he has been proved wrong or that he was in error.
   (3) Shifts his position on a question in order to go along with the group or in order to maintain group harmony.
   (4) Volunteers or agrees to assume group functions.

The distribution of these functions among the members of a group is a major and continuous problem of organization. In the early stages of group development there is a natural tendency for the functions to be clustered together into the roles of the chairman, the secretary, and the observer. If these roles become too rigid the group is prevented from sharing

responsibilities and from maturing. It is important, therefore, that all the members become aware of the essential functions as soon as possible and practice performing them.

One device that speeds this process is that of rotating roles among the members of the group. The chairmanship can be assumed by two or three members in the course of a meeting, as can other roles. In this way each member becomes familiar with all the functions. When the group really matures it will not be necessary to define specific functions—a member of the group will be sensitive to the need for a specific function at a given time and will automatically perform it. At that point, leadership functions become identical with membership functions.

5. *Leadership helps the group determine its procedures.* Efficiency of operation requires that there be agreed-upon rules of operation. The standard method of solving this problem, that of parliamentary procedure, is seldom satisfactory in group-centered groups. It tends to introduce an element of stiffness that destroys the climate of warm informality. It disrupts group unity. In general, no decision is completely satisfactory unless it has been reached by consensus. If, for some reason, it becomes necessary to take a vote, it should be done with the greatest respect for the position of the minority.

It is probably best to avoid trying to lay down very many general rules of procedure. Each situation has its own requirements. In one, a decision may be reached most efficiently through general discussion and consensus. In another, it may be preferable to have the group divide into small work-groups. In a third situation the testing of conflicting ideas in a role-playing scene might be the most rewarding procedure. As the group becomes familiar with the various methods of solving problems it can determine which procedure will work best in each situation.

6. *Responsibility for making decisions is kept wholly in the group.* The taking of responsibility is one function no individual leader can perform for a fully self-directing and mature group. As a member, anyone who is performing a leadership function is free to make suggestions, state opinions, and gen-

erally participate, but the group must decide for itself what its course of action will be.

7. *The group examines its internal problems and its process objectively in order to increase its efficiency.* By developing the habit of looking not only at what it is doing, but how it is doing it, a group can develop improved ways of operating. In this process the role of group observer, which will be discussed in detail later, can be particularly helpful.

Many of the ticklish problems of member behavior that plague the leaders of leader-centered groups, such as how to keep the discussion on the beam, what to do with the person who monopolizes the discussion, and how to handle stubbornness, hostility, and shyness, tend to disappear when a group becomes objective about its process. For example, in a leader-centered group the leader is blamed if he lets one member dominate a discussion, and yet he can hardly do anything about it without impairing his relation with that member. In a group-centered group the problem would be brought to the group by some member (or the observer) remarking that there does not seem to be general participation in the discussion—what does the group want to do about it? The problem then becomes one of group process, not of personalities, and the group can solve it objectively. It is not uncommon in group-centered groups for the person who has been talking too much to come up with the best solution for getting more people to talk!

8. *The group is sensitive to the feelings as well as the ideas of the group members, and responds to both with equal understanding and acceptance.* If a group member expresses impatience with the way things are going, this feeling should be accepted, and the individual and group should decide what they want to do about it. The effect of this recognition of feelings is to release them for constructive use. The group member whose negative feelings are accepted as valid does not have to be defensive about them.

9. *The group uses the resources within its own members, or brings in outside resources, as its needs require.* Facts, experiences, skills, and reasoned judgments are often necessary

before further progress can be made by a group. A good group first analyzes the latent resources within its own members and makes use of them whenever they meet the need. It does not hesitate, however, to go outside the group and recruit specialists who can give it what it needs. Care must be exercised, in this case, to prepare the resource person for the role he is to play in the group. In general, a resource person should be used in much the same way an encyclopedia is used—to be turned to when needed. Unhappy situations develop when the resource person does not realize the limitations of his function and tries to take over the direction of the group.

10. *The group develops the habit of testing its own thinking.* In many situations the group can actually try out decisions in role-playing or in direct practice. In others, it can intellectually explore the consequences of its decisions if carried into action. The habit of testing ideas leads to group members saying to one another, "Let's test that idea out," rather than, "You're crazy."

The steps in group thinking, as in individual thinking, should be: (1) identification of the problem; (2) assessment of the factors and forces underlying the problem; (3) assembling of necessary facts about the problem; (4) developing ideas about the solution of the problem; (5) testing these ideas; (6) taking action; and (7) evaluating results.

## The Group Process Observer

The function of observing how a group is functioning and of feeding back to it information that will help it improve its process can be performed by any member of the group. Until the members have gained some experience with the function, however, it is advisable to establish the role of observer and have it performed by designated individuals. The role of the observer has been defined at the National Training Laboratory in Group Development as follows:

> The observer is a group member who has been assigned the specific job of observing the group's functioning as a totality and of helping the group evaluate its way of working in order to help it increase its efficiency. In practice, this has meant that the

group observer (who may be a rotating or fixed member) does not participate in the group's discussion of its various subject matter topics. Instead he makes observations about group process at times set aside by the group for this purpose.

His observational material consists of the notes, mental or written, preferably the latter, which he makes of the way the group operates and which he "feeds back" to the group upon its request, with varying degrees of interpretation. Three "levels" of observer feedback may be shown by the following examples. *Descriptive*: "We were not able to reach any decisions today although we discussed two problems which required decision-making." *Low-level interpretation*: "There were no decisions reached today. Was it because none of us played the role of decision-initiator?" *High-level interpretation*: "We seemed to feel that the issues we discussed today were just too hot to handle. We were afraid to commit ourselves on them because it would mean taking sides with one or the other of the two members of our group who have strongly opposing opinions."[4]

Many groups have found it helpful to instruct the observer to feel free to interrupt at any time to make observations about what is happening. Or a group member who feels that the group is not making the progress it should may ask the observer to report what is going on. For example, the observer might report that the group seems to be going off on a tangent and ask the group if it concurs. If so, does it want to do something about it? Or the observer may report that there seems to be a need for authoritative information, or that certain of the contributions are so general that possibly specific illustrations should be given, or that three or four members seem to be dominating the discussion, or that there seems to be a need for a recapitulation of the discussion to date by the recorder. These observations are then discussed objectively by the group and it decides what it wants to do about them.

Since the role of observer is new to most groups, it is important that the group be prepared for the introduction of this function into its operation. The role of the observer should be discussed and, if appropriate, demonstrated through role-playing. The group should accept the desirability of the observer before the role is put into practice. Group members

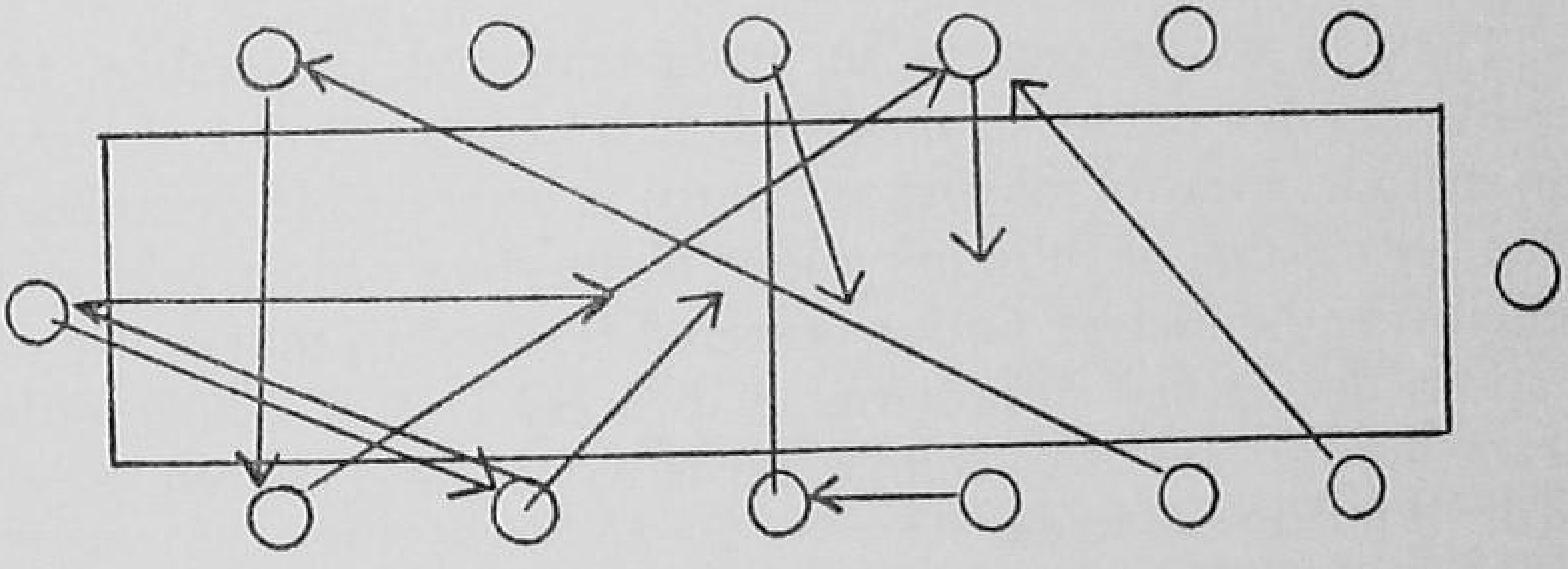
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 116.

who take the role of observer must, if they are to serve the group well, maintain good relations with the group members. Observations should be made objectively, in terms of the group's problem, and in terms of roles, forces, and situations rather than of persons. The observer must never permit himself to compete with the designated chairman, but rather to work with him in a team relationship. In the early stages of experience with group observation it may be desirable to limit observations to such general points as problems of communication, goal direction, and pattern of participation.

For example, the observer might make a flow chart showing the number and direction of contributions during short periods during the discussion, as in Exhibit 3. He shows these charts to the group not as a personal opinion, but as objective fact.

EXHIBIT 3

PATTERN OF PARTICIPATION



THE USES OF GROUP-CENTERED LEADERSHIP

In any situation in which good group functioning is possible, group-centered leadership is also possible. Some of the situations in which it has been used successfully include administrative committees of agencies of the Federal Government, church fellowship groups, Y.M.C.A. staff committees and clubs, Great Books courses, labor-management negotiation meetings, supervisory training in industry, rural education groups, educational discussion groups, community action committees, and professional conferences.

Group-centered leadership will not work, however, when

the purpose is strictly indoctrination. An administrator whose objective it is to inform his subordinates of changes in regulations handed down from higher authority would not create a group-centered group for this purpose. Nor would a sea captain whose ship is sinking use group-centered leadership to get his passengers into lifeboats.

There may also be situations in which group-centered leadership cannot be used completely, owing to the administrative framework within which a group operates, to legal requirements, or to other external pressures. For example, most committees and boards are established by a higher authority that holds the chairman personally responsible for the actions of the committee. It would be impossible for him, therefore, completely to relinquish the responsibilities of leadership to the whole group. In this case the leader can interpret the circumstances to the group and suggest that he function as their spokesman and representative, but that the group function otherwise as a self-directing unit.

There is no set pattern in group-centered leadership, no fixed rules that cannot be modified. It is rather a point of view, an attitude, a way of looking at groups as responsible organisms that are capable of thinking about themselves objectively and improving themselves. Group-centered leadership makes use of various devices for improving its process and is continually searching for new ones, but none is to be held sacred, especially if it does not work.

### *Some Questions about Group-centered Leadership*

Many interesting questions are raised by people when they first hear about group dynamics or group-centered leadership. Some of these questions, and possible answers to them, may yield additional insights into the nature of the problem of leadership.

*How can a group accomplish anything without a strong leader?* It seems unbelievable, on first thought, that without strong directive leadership a group could accomplish much more than rambling talk. There is evidence, however, from a wide variety of sources, that group-centered groups are not only

more pleasant but are actually more productive than leader-directed groups. The reason for this phenomenon is that when a group accepts responsibility for its own operation it has many more resources to bring to bear in the solution of its problems than any individual has. The group is a much harder taskmaster than any leader would dare to be. Furthermore, each member of the group feels a more personal stake in the success of the group.

*Don't overaggressive members tend to run away with groups unless there is a leader who can control them?* It would seem that a permissive leader would be quite helpless against an overtalkative member. In actual practice, however, group-centered groups have very effective controls over member behavior. In the first place, the need for self-projection and other disruptive actions tends to disappear in a climate of acceptance and understanding. When a person finds that he is not being judged, that nobody is competing with him, he no longer has to build himself up and defend himself. In the second place, a group-centered group, through the objective observation of its process, sets up much more effective controls than a leader can. A self-centered person can oppose an individual leader more easily than he can violate a group code of conduct.

*Wouldn't it take too much time to get a committee organized this way when it meets for only a couple of hours once a week?* It would, of course, be necessary to take some time out from ordinary business to interpret group-centered leadership and to help a group organize on this basis. The process can be greatly speeded, however, by advance preparation of key individuals through interviews and written materials. The amount of time it takes away from committee meetings will be more than made up through more efficient operation in later meetings.

*How does one learn to be a group-centered leader?* To become a group-centered leader one must acquire a democratic attitude for himself and skill in helping a group to become democratic in its attitudes and procedures. Three sources of training are available:

1. *Printed materials.* The bibliography at the end of this book contains many references, most of them in pamphlet form, that present the theory of group dynamics and offer practical suggestions in greater detail than has been done here.

2. *Training conferences and courses.* The Research Center for Group Dynamics and the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association, with co-operating institutions, sponsor the National Training Laboratory in Group Development for three weeks each summer at Bethel, Maine. Individuals or leadership teams from local organizations may enroll in it. An increasing number of universities are offering extension courses in group dynamics, including the University of California, the University of Chicago, the University of Michigan, Columbia University, and Ohio State University. Short-term institutes are frequently offered by adult education councils, church federations, councils of social agencies, and other local organizations.

3. *Experience and practice.* After a background of principles and techniques has been acquired from reading or from training courses, the real learning occurs when one starts applying them with an actual group. Through practice, leadership skill is finally developed and attitudes crystallize.

There may also be some question as to whether or not a group-centered leader really leads. A casual observer, if he can spot the leader at all, may feel that he is too passive to come within the traditional definition of the word "leader." Permissive leadership is, however, neither easy nor passive. It may have required great effort for the leader to acquire an attitude of real acceptance and understanding of people. And it definitely requires great effort for a leader to think *with* a group instead of *about* it and to understand both the ideas and the feelings of all the members. The leader does not succeed in establishing and maintaining a democratic group climate by being passive, but rather by straining every nerve to understand and accept each member of the group and by working laboriously to help the group to understand and improve its own processes.

## Two New Tools of Group Leadership

Two devices that have proved to be unusually helpful to group thinking are *buzz sessions* and *role-playing.* While neither device is new, the discovery of how useful both devices can be in group leadership is relatively so.

### BUZZ SESSIONS

The buzz session is a method whereby a large group (varying from a discussion group to a lecture audience) is divided into small groups of from five to ten individuals for the discussion of a specific problem for a limited time, usually from five to ten minutes. This process has also been given such names as *cluster discussion, subdiscussion,* and *discussion 66.*[5]

In using this device, the leader announces the purposes it is to serve, exactly how the buzz groups are to be divided (for example, by tables, by rows, or by sections of rows), what problem they are to discuss, how much time will be allowed, and what they are expected to report. The leader will usually ask each group first to name a spokesman. The groups then discuss until the leader signals that time is up, whereupon he calls on each spokesman to report for his group. A recorder may summarize the main points on a blackboard.

Some of the situations in which this device has proved useful are the following:

1. *In defining problems or questions.* Frequently even a small discussion group will save time by dividing into smaller groups to isolate the problems with which its members are concerned. In large audiences the device may be used for listing the problems toward which it would like a lecture to be directed, or for framing the questions it would like put to a speaker following his talk.

2. *In developing a list of possible goals,* which will then be refined and assigned priorities by the total group.

3. *In refining ideas or developing solutions to problems,* in

[5] So named by one of the pioneer experimenters with the device, Don Phillips, of Michigan State College. He followed the pattern of dividing the audience into groups of six people for a duration of six minutes.

which case each buzz group might take a different aspect of the total problem.

The advantage of the buzz session technique is that every person in a group is involved in the discussion. It produces surprisingly useful results in a minimum amount of time, and almost always leaves the group in a state of enthusiasm and high feeling-tone. It automatically creates an atmosphere of informality, even in the most formal setting.

ROLE-PLAYING

The recently developed technique of role-playing has proved of great value, in a wide variety of situations, for analyzing human relations factors and testing ideas. It is sometimes loosely referred to as psychodrama or sociodrama, but both of these terms have more restricted meanings. Psychodrama consists of a formalized dramatic situation in which an emotionally disturbed patient acts out a role as part of the diagnosis and treatment of his illness. Sociodrama is the dramatic reproduction of social problems, usually under clinical conditions.

Role-playing is a spontaneous acting out of a situation or an incident by selected members of the group. For instance, a P.T.A. group found role-playing to be an effective method for gaining greater insight into some of the problems the teachers face in their relations with parents. The scene was set in the principal's office. One P.T.A. member played the role of an irate, aggressive mother who was overprotective toward her child and who was complaining to the principal that the teacher was letting other children take advantage of her little Johnny. The role of the teacher, who was trying to help Johnny develop self-reliance, was played by another P.T.A. member. The part of the principal, whose job was that of mediator and interpreter, was taken by a third P.T.A. member. The scene was acted out twice, with a timekeeper stopping the act when he felt enough material had been presented (about ten minutes for each scene).

In the first scene the role-players were instructed to have the attitude that they would fight for their rights as parent, teacher, and principal, and that they would show the other

fellow where he was wrong. This scene ended with tempers hot and no solution in sight. In the second scene each role-player was instructed to have the attitude of wanting to put himself in the other fellow's shoes, trying really to understand how he felt, and of seeking a solution that would really solve the problem in the interest of Johnny. This scene ended in the middle of a friendly and constructive discussion in which the mother was accepting much of the responsibility for Johnny's problem and was seeking the teacher's and principal's advice as to what *she* should do. It should be emphasized that the role-players were never told what to say. They were merely given a brief description of the situation, the problem, and the generalized attitudes they should adopt. Each one decided what to say as he went along.

Following these two scenes the role-players were asked how they felt about their parts, and they all agreed that they were uncomfortable and hostile in the first scene and that they felt at ease and co-operative in the second. The audience then discussed the forces at work in this situation and the implications of their observations. A number of members testified that they had gained new insights into the nature of the parent-teacher relationship. Several members said they had learned more this way than if they had been told exactly the same principles in a better organized form in a lecture.

### *Uses of Role-playing*

Role-playing has been found to be especially useful as a source of at least three types of knowledge:

1. *An understanding of the feelings of people.* Those who take roles find that they are actually able to experience the emotional feel of the role. They gain a new understanding of what it is like to be that kind of person. Their insight may be deepened by switching roles, such as playing the role of a Negro in one scene and that of an arrogant white in another. Similar insights into feelings are gained by the observers of role-playing, although probably not quite so deeply.

2. *An understanding of the forces in a situation that block*

*or facilitate good human relations.* Role-playing is an effective method for bringing highly charged personal emotions into an objective light. Everyone understands that the person who is playing a role is not being himself but is representing a hypothetical character. It is possible, therefore, for the entire group, including the role-player, to discuss his attitudes and actions without threatening anyone's self-respect or status in the group. Such emotionally charged feelings as prejudice, arrogance, shyness, hostility, and many others can be freely and frankly discussed.

Frequently role-playing can be useful in helping a group to analyze its own difficulties. One group, for example, had reached an impasse because the members had divided themselves into three factions with contradictory desires. By enacting a role-playing scene in which the three factions were represented by hypothetical roles, the group was able to analyze the forces making for harmony and those making for disharmony and to devise a strategy on which all could agree.

3. *Experimental evidence as to which of several possible solutions of a problem will work best.* Role-playing provides an excellent laboratory, under controlled conditions, for testing ideas and plans of action in a practice situation. For instance, if a group is in doubt as to whether its needs will best be served at a given point by very directive or very permissive leadership, it can try out both methods under similar circumstances in role-playing and observe the results.

### *How to Do Role-playing*

Role-playing is not a technique that requires highly trained leadership, and the dramatic ability (or lack of it) of the participants has very little to do with its success. It has been used successfully in many strictly amateur groups. The following simple steps may be helpful in assuring a successful experience:[6]

1. *Choose a time and situation in which role-playing is appropriate.* Role-playing should grow out of a real need in

[6] Adapted from an outline in *Report of the Second Laboratory Session* of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

the group; it should not be used just for the sake of doing it. Role-playing is likely to be appropriate when any of the three kinds of knowledge listed above are needed by the group.

2. *Define the problem.* The problem chosen for portrayal in role-playing should be one that is meaningful to the group and will contribute to its goals. Experience indicates that results are best if at least these criteria are observed: "(a) The scene should reveal a valid problem in human relations; (b) the problem should be clear and specific, not too complex; (c) the problem should be one that can be solved by the characters in the scene without exaggeration of their abilities; (d) it must also have significance for the persons who are doing the role-playing."[7] The situation should be so clearly worked out by the group that there can be no question on the part of the role-players as to what is expected of them.

3. *Define the roles.* The group should agree as to the general characteristics they want represented in each role. In some cases it may be sufficient merely to define the attitude the role-player will take toward the situation being enacted, while in others it may be desirable to describe the character's social and economic background, his general outlook on life, and other pertinent personality characteristics. The role-player should have a great deal of latitude in interpreting how a character with given general characteristics and attitudes will act under specific circumstances.

4. *Choose the role-players.* There are several ways of choosing group members to play roles. Probably the simplest is to suggest that the group name the role-players. Other methods include asking for volunteers, appointment of the role-players by the leader, selection by a committee, or selection by chance. "It may be desirable to start people in roles in which they feel at home and confident. Soon, however, they should be able to take roles that will help them to stretch their perceptions and insights. Care should be taken to avoid uncovering deep-seated problems that require professional handling. If there is an unfavorable role, it may be well to assign it to a person who has

[7] *Ibid.*

enough status in the group to carry this burden successfully. Or the leader might take this role to protect the feelings of others and get things moving."[8]

5. *Set the stage.* Role-playing may require some simple physical properties, such as a table with chairs around it. The role-players should be placed so that they will be clearly visible and audible to the audience. The psychological stage should also be set. The purpose of the role-playing and the exact nature of the situation to be enacted should be clearly understood by audience and role-players alike.

6. *Prepare the audience to observe.* It might be helpful for the group to list the specific behavior, underlying forces, or emotional reactions they will look for. Sometimes it is useful to designate one individual or a group of members to concentrate on each of the role-players separately and to report their observations at the end of the scene. Other members might observe specific process elements, such as the way the problem is handled, the quality of the solutions proposed, or changes in the group climate. Additional insights may be gained by having the observer try to predict how the role-players will react.

It may or may not be desirable for the role-players to be out of the room while these plans are being made, depending upon whether such knowledge would prejudice their reactions in the role-playing. It is sometimes even desirable for the role-players not to know the characterizations of the other role-players, in which case the role-players would be sent out of the room while the roles are being defined by the group. The leader can then brief each player in his role privately.

7. *Enact the scene.* It is usually desirable to allow the role-players a few minutes to think over their parts and get into the feeling of their roles. But there should be no script and no plot; the role-players should work out their responses as they go along. Underpreparation is usually preferable to overpreparation. The scene should be cut as soon as enough material has been presented to form a basis for discussion. "The

[8] *Ibid.*

common tendency is to let the scene go on too long."[9] The stopping point may be determined by the leader, by a group member who has been designated as scene-stopper, or by the audience. Scenes usually run from two to twenty minutes.

8. *Discuss and evaluate the role-playing.* If there are several scenes, it may be desirable to have some discussion following each scene, with an over-all discussion at the end. It is usually rewarding to ask the role-players to tell how they felt in their roles and how they react to the other characters in the drama. Special observers, if they have been designated, may be asked to report on their observations. Then the whole group should discuss the significant outcomes of the role-playing. If the audience is large, it may be divided into buzz groups for discussion.

Role-playing is a useful technique for obtaining data about problems in human relations. It is also an unusually good instrument for helping people to change their attitudes. In many instances when individuals have played the roles of characters toward whom they felt antagonistic, they emerged from the experience a great deal more understanding and accepting. By reversing roles, having several people play the same role in rotation, or projecting roles into future situations, some significant insights can be obtained.

## Some Implications of Democratic Leadership

We are just beginning to learn the meaning of really democratic leadership and how to develop it. Even now, however, there is enough evidence of good results to justify certain hopes about this kind of democratic leadership. It has been demonstrated that people mature in groups that are mature, that they develop attitudes based on love rather than fear, that they become skillful in human relations. It has been demonstrated that groups can become amazingly efficient and productive when they become mature, when their members are freed from blockings that prevent their contributing their full capacities to the group. These are facts that potentially have far-reaching consequences to our society.

[9] *Ibid.*

# 5

# INFORMAL COURSES

WHEN A group of people come together in a number of meetings for the purpose of learning something simply because they want to know about it, they are participating in what we would call an informal course. It would not be an informal course if the purpose was to grant credits toward a diploma or a degree; it would then be an academic course. At the other extreme, it would not be an informal course if it had no educational objective at all; it would then be a recreational activity.

## WHAT ARE INFORMAL COURSES?

Informal courses are distinguished from forums, lecture series, clubs, and other forms of adult education principally by the unity of organization and continuity of membership and leadership found in courses. An informal course has a definite enrollment, with the same people attending through the entire series of meetings. It usually will also have the same leader throughout, although there may be guest lecturers. There is an inherent unity in an informal course, since all the meetings will be related to the same objective.

Informal courses are found in many places and in many forms. When a church, a P.T.A., or a women's club decides it should learn more about leadership techniques or child psychology or practically any other intensive subject, it probably organizes an informal course. When an industrial concern wants to train its foreman in human relations, or a labor union wants

to orient its members to union policies, informal courses are often the solution. Informal courses will be found in many other organizations, including libraries, youth organizations, agricultural groups, business associations, and governmental agencies. Even formal educational institutions, such as universities and high schools, offer this kind of adult education to increasing numbers of people.

## The Role of Informal Courses in an Organization

When and why should an organization undertake to offer a program of informal courses? Some of the situations in which informal courses have been found to be especially appropriate are the following:

1. *When it is desired to develop special skills.* For instance, when a camera club finds that it has a large group of new members who do not possess some of the basic skills necessary for the practice of photography, it can most efficiently develop those skills through organized informal classes. During the World War it became necessary to train large numbers of people in first aid. One possible answer would have been to send lecturers out to address hundreds of people on the principles of first aid. But the American Red Cross knew from its vast experience that this kind of skill-training can be accomplished best through hundreds of small informal courses in which individuals can actually practice the techniques of first aid. A large labor union wishes to develop skill in collective bargaining negotiation among local labor union leaders. Should it issue a bulletin, call a conference, or send a field representative to consult with each local leader individually? It may use all these methods, but the more experienced labor unions will, in addition, call its local leaders together for an intensive short-term informal course.

2. *When it is desired to produce changes in attitudes.* While there is no guarantee that any educational activity will produce a change in attitude, the informal course is one of the most promising methods. Attitudes are frequently changed through the acquisition of new information that is made real in terms

of the individual's own experience. Changes in attitude also occur as a result of new insights into the behavior of other people and an understanding of oneself. The give-and-take of creative group thinking, which is a characteristic of good informal courses, provides an environment in which such insights and understandings develop. Attitudes sometimes change also as a result of the pressure of group opinion. In informal courses the group is free to express itself and, in miniature, to serve as a mirror of public opinion.

When will changes in attitude be an objective of an organization? Almost all of the courses in a general adult education program should have attitudinal change as one of their primary objectives. For instance, probably a majority of the people who enroll in courses in psychology do not want to know more facts about psychology so much as to be able actually to get along better with people—which means, in the last analysis, changing their attitude towards themselves and towards others. Even in a course like social dancing, the real purpose of an individual's enrolling may be not so much to learn new dance steps as to overcome an attitude of timidity towards the opposite sex.

Sometimes it may be desirable to organize an informal course expressly for the purpose of changing attitudes. This was the solution devised by a judge in Chicago who presided at the trial of a group of participants in a race riot. He sentenced them to compulsory attendance in an informal course on human relations until such time as they were free from prejudice.

3. *When it is desired to provide short-term exploratory experiences preparatory to affiliation with a long-run program.* Some organizations, such as athletic clubs, Y.M.C.A.'s, and university clubs, have a membership policy that involves commitment for a considerable period of time (usually one year) and the outlay of a sizable membership fee. Short-term informal courses provide an opportunity in such a situation for members of the general public to be brought into the building for an inexpensive exploration of its services and facilities. In much the same way, short courses can be a stepping stone toward enrollment in a degree program in university extension. Many

adults are skeptical of their ability to resume academic studies after a lapse of several years. They need the exploratory experience of a short course to reassure them. In other words, informal courses can function as an instrument of recruitment for a larger program.

4. *When it is desired to attract a diversified clientele.* It is not uncommon among recreational agencies to find that their programs have become out of balance—let's say they have become predominantly physical activities—and that their participants are people whose interests are rather narrow. In such a case, if the organization wishes to provide a broader scope of services to the community, it may be desirable to attract a group of new participants whose interests are more varied. Informal courses are likely to be especially effective in accomplishing this objective, since there is practically no limitation in the scope of interests to which they can appeal.

## The Organization of an Informal Course Program

There is a wide variety of practice in the organization of informal course programs, ranging from the staff-dominated organization of many schools to the completely participant-managed programs of such voluntary organizations as the League of Women Voters. Informal courses may be under institutional auspices, in which case their precise form of organization will be largely determined by the traditions and policies of the sponsoring institution. Or, they may be organized as completely separate and independent entities, without any predetermined pattern of organization.

Frequently an informal course is organized and offered as an independent unit within some larger program. Thousands of organizations that depend on volunteer leadership, ranging from the Boy Scouts to political parties, bring their volunteers together periodically into leadership training courses. Many churches sponsor informal courses for adults in subjects ranging from Bible study to religion and psychiatry. Numerous other organizations similarly have individual courses intermittently in their programs.

Although the discussion in this chapter is primarily in terms

of programs involving groups of courses, many of the principles apply equally to independent courses.

There are many advantages in consolidating several courses into an integrated program, rather than presenting them as a series of individual offerings. Not only can the individual course be promoted more efficiently when it is one of a series, but the program has a greater impact on the individual and on the community. It seems more significant. There is an additional advantage if the program as a whole can be given an attractive unifying label, such as "Lifelong Learning," "Hobby Nights at the 'Y,'" "Learning for Living," "University of Life," "Summer School for Office Workers," or "Modern Industrial Institute."

An informal course program must be kept highly flexible if it is to adapt itself continuously to the changing needs of adults. The best informal course programs seem to operate on an almost perpetual "emergency" basis, responding within a few days to a change in the headlines, altering their plans on short notice to take advantage of the unexpected availability of a first-class instructor, or quickly organizing a new course to meet an unanticipated need that a small group of individuals has presented. This kind of flexibility is difficult to achieve if the informal course program is merely an appendage of some older, more routine type of program.

## Determining What Subjects to Offer

Sometimes there is little question about what subjects should be offered in an informal course program, owing to limitations inherent in the situation. For instance, an in-service training program in an industrial plant would automatically be concerned wth the job skills involved. Usually, however, there is a wide choice of possible subjects. The program director and his committee are then faced with the problem of deciding which subjects would be *best*. Several principles of curriculum building are suggested:

1. *A tentative goal should be set as to the total number of courses to be included in the program.* This goal will depend

upon several factors, including capacities of the staff, number of meeting rooms, a realistic appraisal of the potential clientele, financial resources, and past experience. In general, it would seem to be sound advice to start a new program on a relatively small scale and to build slowly and soundly. The *Learning for Living* programs in Chicago's Central Y.M.C.A. started in 1946 with ten courses and added ten courses each quarter until the maximum of ninety had been reached. This seems to be a fairly typical pattern for community-center-type programs in large cities.

2. *Every program should be founded on a solid core of subjects in which there is a known need and interest, but should also include a small number of purely experimental subjects for the purpose of exploring new needs and interests.* The value of this principle is illustrated by a recent experience of a program director who found an expert instructor for a "sure-fire" course in interior decoration, but was persuaded by him to offer in addition a course in the expert's particular hobby, antiques. No participant had ever asked for a course on antiques, and the program director had no reason to believe there was much interest in it. When enrollments had been completed, however, the antique course was filled to overflowing, while the course on interior decoration had only a moderate registration.

The subjects that prove to be popular in almost every program in the country and might be thought of as the basic core of informal course programs are listed on pages 23 and 24. Needs and interests that are more local can be discovered by the community survey, interest questionnaire, and other methods described in Chapter 8.

3. *A general program of informal courses should seek to present a more or less balanced variety of subjects.* It happens that people often have what might be called a secondary interest that would not in itself impel them to enroll in a course. But if they enroll in a course appealing to a primary interest and find that a course in their secondary interest is being given on the same night, they are attracted to it. For instance, a recent study of a group of adult students in a course on world

affairs revealed that few of them would have enrolled in that course if they had not been coming to the center anyway for a course in public speaking, social dancing, or some other primary interest. Since one of the objectives of adult education is to broaden the interests of participants, it seems important to include as wide a variety of subjects as possible.

One adult education program[1] has included in its objectives the ten areas of subject matter with which it will be concerned, and every effort is made to include at least one course in each area every term.

4. *Subjects should be selected that are in keeping with the policies of the sponsoring institution and the objectives of the program.* It is important for the program director and his committee to have a definite frame of reference to turn to in deciding whether or not a given subject would be a desirable one for that program. Once a program becomes established in the community the director is likely to be deluged with requests for all kinds of courses by proponents of certain points of view or by people who would like jobs teaching. His life can be made miserable unless he has a definite set of policies to back him up in screening such requests. Furthermore, unless a consistent policy is followed the program will lack integration.

5. *Subjects should not ordinarily be offered that will duplicate or conflict with the programs of other organizations in the community.* For a suggested set of criteria to apply in determining when duplication does or does not exist, see page 185, Chapter 8.

6. *Subjects should be limited to objectives that can be accomplished within the time limits set by nature of the program.* Ordinarily, informal courses provide for between six and thirty hours of instruction. It would obviously be a mistake to try to cover "Personnel Management" in six hours, whereas a more limited aspect of the subject, such as "Preparing Job Descriptions," might be treated quite adequately in that time.

Some subjects can be arranged into courses of progressive development, such as beginning, intermediate, and advanced. This system is most often employed in the case of languages.

[1] See pp. 184 and 185.

Wherever possible, however, the units should be arranged so that new students can be admitted at each level if they meet certain requirements, since there is an inevitable shrinkage in the original group as it passes from one level to another.

The objectives of each course should be carefully stated, in order that both the instructor and the students have a goal in mind. The general objective of the course is determined when it is originally scheduled, but more specific objectives may be determined at the opening meeting by the instructor and the participants co-operatively. These objectives should not be so broad as to be incapable of accomplishment and not so narrow as to fail to challenge the participants and the instructor.

In framing the objectives for a course, it would be well to bear in mind that the purpose of informal adult education is seldom to produce a finished product, but rather to give adults tools they can use for continued self-study. A vocabulary course, for instance, could hardly hope to produce polished vocabularies in its participants in ten weeks. But it can give them an understanding of certain principles and methods that will help them to improve their vocabularies for years to come. An awareness of this fact can save a lot of frustration on the part of instructors who feel they cannot do justice to a subject in ten weeks.

7. *Subjects can be delineated according to topical areas of knowledge or according to functional problems to be dealt with.* The traditional academic courses are almost entirely concerned with areas of knowledge, such as "Early American History" or "Elementary Physics." This system has carried over into informal course programs to a large extent, but there is a growing tendency to supplant it with a problem approach. For example, "Getting Along with Others" is becoming more popular than "Principles of Applied Psychology." "Writing Short Stories" is preferred to "English Composition," and "Using Good English" is replacing "Basic Grammar." This represents a great deal more than a mere playing with words. It shows that informal adult education is functional and is concerned with solving the real-life problems of people, not merely with abstract knowledge.

8. *There should be a balance between courses that produce an income and courses that require subsidy.* There are certain courses that attract large groups of people and are relatively inexpensive to operate, and so produce an income. Among courses of this nature are usually found those dealing with vocational improvement, public speaking, social dancing, music appreciation, and psychology. On the other hand, there are courses that almost always have to be subsidized because the enrollment in them is limited to small groups and they are expensive to operate. Many of the arts and crafts fall into this category, as well as public affairs, religion, and experimental courses. Sound financing requires that a sufficient number of the income-producing courses be included. But if a program is to offer a balanced variety of subjects and to be dynamic, it is also necessary to include a number of courses that require subsidy. By skillfully weighing the one against the other, both a balanced program and a balanced budget can be achieved.

9. *Subjects should be selected with a sensitivity to seasonal interests and to current developments in human affairs.* The seasonal variations are fairly constant and obvious. Courses on gardening are best in late winter and early spring; announcements of them should arrive shortly after the seed catalogs are delivered. Courses on interior decorating are usually most popular in the spring, when interest in spring cleaning is at its peak. Automobile driving is best in the fall or spring, at least in the North, because the roads are not in suitable condition for instruction during the winter.

People who plan courses ought to keep an eye on the headlines. A crisis in international affairs may be the signal for a new course on "How Diplomacy Works," or an outburst of racial tension may indicate a need and interest in that area, or a controversial election campaign may be a natural springboard for a course in practical politics. Such other events as the publication of a best-selling book (such as the Kinsey Report) or a new discovery (atomic energy) may result in a wave of interest that will provide a natural stimulus for an informal course. During a depression the needs and interests of adult students are quite different from what they are during a boom.

10. *It is frequently good practice to arrange for one instructor to give two courses in an evening.* Usually it is more attractive to an instructor to spend a full evening teaching in the program, and to be compensated for two or three courses. Better instructors can often be recruited by offering them this added inducement. Sometimes, in the case of more popular subjects, the two courses might be in the same subject—an early and late section. Frequently, however, good instructors have a secondary interest that would make a good experimental course The case of the interior decoration teacher who was also an expert on antiques has already been cited. Another instance is an instructor of vocabulary building who was also a champion chess player and who gave a very successful second course in "Learning to Play Chess."

11. *The selection of courses should be according to policies established by the directing committee, but should be made by the program director.* When a program consists of more than a few courses the staff worker responsible should probably be granted a wide degree of latitude in the final determination of the subjects to be offered. For instance, the directing committee might express the desire that a certain subject be offered in the next series. The program director may not be able to find a first-rate instructor by the deadline for going to press, and he should not feel under pressure to compromise with a second-rate instructor. On the other hand, he should be free to include a new course for which a highly competent instructor suddenly becomes available, even though it has not been specifically approved by the committee.

## SCHEDULING INFORMAL COURSES

1. *When should course meetings be held?* The answer is, simply, when it is most convenient for the people being served. Evening hours prove to be most convenient to the vast majority of adults, although some informal courses are offered during the day for swing-shift workers and for housewives. At a downtown location, a luncheon meeting may be most convenient for some people. Almost all downtown programs schedule their courses to start at 6:00 or 6:30 o'clock. Presumably, city workers

find it more convenient to stay downtown after work, have a quick supper, and go right to class. Programs that take place in residential neighborhoods, on the other hand, schedule most of their classes to start at 7:30 or 8:00 o'clock, allowing their participants time to have dinner at home before attending class.

2. *How long should the meetings last?* The general practice ranges from one to three hours, but the most common duration of class meetings seems to be an hour and a half. Several factors will determine which length of time is best in a given situation.

The element of fatigue must be considered in all cases. It is doubtful if people who have just finished a hard day's work can concentrate very well for much longer than an hour and a half of unbroken study. With a ten-minute intermission, however, they frequently are ready for another hour and a half.

Another variable is the type of activity. Certain types of laboratory and arts and crafts courses require a considerable amount of preparation each evening, such as setting up apparatus, and therefore demand a longer period if the participants are to get in the allotted time for instruction.

A third factor is concerned with scheduling. When the duration of class periods is one hour, it is possible to schedule three sets of classes each evening. Hour-and-a-half and two-hour periods permit two sets. Longer periods will probably permit only one set of classes. In general, it seems desirable to have at least two class periods.

A fourth factor has to do with how late people can be expected to stay. The most general practice is to end all classes at 10:00 o'clock, but this may vary an hour each way.

A general principle that seems to have merit might be stated as follows: class meetings should not be so short that too little will be accomplished nor so long that participants become fatigued.

3. *What days of the week are best?* The general experience seems to be that the earlier days in the week are the most popular, although there are many exceptions to this pattern. The habits of the particular group being served should be the determining factor.

4. *How frequently should classes meet?* The most common practice is to schedule class meetings once a week. Adults hesitate to set aside two evenings a week for education, unless there is a particularly strong motivation or a sense of urgency. Some programs, notably the Great Books courses, have experimented with holding meetings on alternate weeks. This practice may be desirable if a great deal of between-meeting preparation is required; but there is likely to be a higher rate of mortality in attendance, since it is more difficult for people to keep track of their schedules.

5. *How should subjects be grouped in the time schedule?* No general rule can be framed for guidance in answering this question, but it is a problem that deserves serious consideration. In a program that has two sets of courses each evening, each set should probably include a variety of subjects, but special attention should be given to subjects that seem to pair up nicely. For instance, many of the people who join the program for public speaking would probably also be interested in a course in parliamentary law. It would be wise, then, to schedule public speaking in the earlier period and parliamentary law in the later period in the same evening, and to call attention to the combination both in the promotion literature and at the first meeting of the public speaking course.

6. *How long should the terms or series be?* Terms range in practice from six to sixteen weeks. The same principle probably applies here that applies to length of meetings: terms should not be so short that too little will be accomplished nor so long that interest wanes. An examination of the program announcements of a number of informal course programs shows that ten weeks is the most frequent length of term, with eight and twelve weeks tying for second place.

## Selecting and Supervising Instructors

There is no question that the quality of the teaching staff determines, more than any other factor, the quality of an informal course program. The building and maintaining of a competent faculty is a problem that deserves careful attention.

SELECTION OF INSTRUCTORS

1. *What are the best sources of instructors?* For programs tending toward academic subject matter, the best source of instructors will probably be the formal educational institutions —high schools, colleges, and universities. For programs that are based on problems of living, the best sources of instructors will probably be those places in which people are doing the kinds of things they are to teach. For example, for a course in "Using Psychology in Everyday Living," the best instructors are likely to be found in psychological clinics or psychiatrists' offices, where real problems are being handled. A good wood-carving instructor is likely to be found in a furniture factory, a public speaking instructor in a radio station, a creative writing instructor in a newspaper office, a business mathematics instructor in an accountant's office, and an interior decoration instructor in a department store.

Probably the best teachers of adults are people who are enthusiastic amateurs in their subject—at least, amateurs at teaching it. This is not to say that good teachers of informal courses cannot be found in formal educational institutions. Some of the very best teachers in informal course programs have been full-time teachers in high schools and universities. But it should be emphasized that there is considerable danger that a university professor might merely repeat to a group of adults the lectures he has prepared for undergraduate students. And the chances are very high that if this happened the adults would soon stop attending.

2. *How does one determine who will be a good instructor?* Certainly it is necessary to gather all the usual information about an instructor's education, experience, and character, just as with any other type of employee, through interviews, academic transcripts, and letters of recommendation. These data will have to be evaluated, however, in terms of the unique qualities that make for success as a teacher of adults. A good academic record might not carry the same weight in this situation as it would in the case of a high school teaching job. It is necessary, therefore, that the program director have a

clearly stated set of criteria by which to judge the qualifications of candidates for teaching positions. The following is a sample set of criteria developed by one adult education program:

a. An instructor must not only have knowledge but must be a successful practitioner of his subject or skill.

b. He must be enthusiastic about his subject, and about teaching it to others.

c. He must have—or be capable of learning—an attitude of understanding and permissiveness toward people. He must have such other traits of personality as friendliness, humor, humility, and interest in people, that make for effectiveness in leading adults.

d. He must be creative in his thinking about teaching methods. He must be willing to experiment with new ways to meet the changing needs and interests of adults. He must be concerned more with the growth of the individual than with the presentation of facts.

e. Such standard requirements as status in the community or occupational group, previous teaching experience, etc., are desirable only when they are compatible with the characteristics described above.

3. *Should instructors be volunteer or paid?* The majority of instructors in institutional programs are paid. As a rule, having an instructor on the pay roll seems to result in better administrative relationships in organized classes. The director feels freer to make demands on paid instructors for the good of the program. There are some instances, however, in which volunteer instructors have made outstanding contributions in institutional programs. It sometimes happens that very prominent people, who could not possibly be motivated by economic considerations, can be persuaded to instruct a course as a community service. It would be a mistake, of course, to have a hard and fast rule that would eliminate such people. Volunteer instructors are found frequently in church, civic organization, and club programs, are usually closely identified with the sponsoring organization, and are highly motivated by a sense of loyalty to their group.

4. *Who should hire and fire instructors?* It is generally accepted as good practice in all types of organizations that the responsibility for the employment and supervision of workers

should be centralized in a single executive. The program director should have the final authority to employ and dismiss teachers. He may find it helpful, however, to seek the advice of members of his committee in judging whether or not given candidates meet the established criteria.

5. *Should there be a written contract?* It is generally found desirable to have some kind of written agreement between the instructor and the organization, so as to avoid any possible misunderstanding. The sample "Letter of Appointment" in Exhibit 4 will illustrate the kinds of information such an agreement might contain.

### COMPENSATION OF INSTRUCTORS

There are several methods of compensating instructors, including the per-hour or per-course basis, the per-student basis, and the percentage-of-income basis. The most commonly accepted practice is to pay each instructor so much per hour of instruction or per course (which are basically the same thing). The difficulty of this method is that there may not be a large enough enrollment in a given course to cover the instructor's fee. It is generally considered poor practice to request that the instructor accept less than the fee originally agreed on, and so the program director is faced with the alternatives of subsidizing or discontinuing the course. By good planning it is usually possible to balance income-producing against subsidy-requiring courses. However, it is wise to have an understanding with the instructor in advance that if the course fails to attract a sufficient number of students it may be canceled without obligation beyond compensation for the actual number of hours of instruction given.

The practice of compensating instructors on the basis of the number of students enrolled in their courses or on the basis of a certain percentage of income produced by each course is generally frowned on as introducing an undesirable element of commercialism into the relationship of the instructor with the program. Most adult educators prefer to regard their instructors as professional people who are entitled to a certain fee for services rendered.

EXHIBIT 4

## LETTER OF APPOINTMENT

January 3, 1950

*Mr. Joseph Smith*
*610 Main Street*
*Middleburg, Middlestate*

DEAR MR. SMITH:

This is to confirm your appointment (or reappointment) to the faculty of the Community Center Adult Education Program.

Your assignment is as follows:

Courses: 1. Improving Your Speech
2. Speaking for Radio

First session: January 17

Room: 215

Compensation: $50 for each eight-week course, totaling $100 for the term, payable one-half January 31 and one-half February 28

As you know, this assignment is contingent upon the development of an adequate enrollment. I shall appreciate your signing and returning the attached duplicate of this letter, agreeing to these conditions.

I am looking forward to working with you during the coming term and sincerely hope that your experience will be a fruitful one.

Yours very truly,

JOHN R. DOE
*Director of Adult Education*

.................................................................

INSTRUCTOR'S AGREEMENT:

This will acknowledge receipt of the above letter and my agreement to the terms stated in it.

*(Signed)*______________________________

The exact amount of compensation that will be best in a given situation will depend upon such factors as:

1. *The standard practice among other organizations in the community.* This practice varies widely not only among communities but among organizations within the same community. Compensation for evening high school teachers, for instance, is usually based on the standard scale for all teachers in the system and is graduated according to length of service. Recent studies indicate that it ranges from $2.50 per hour to about $7.50 per

hour. The practice among other organizations in the same community is usually to pay according to a higher scale, ranging from $3.00 to $15. If an organization wants to attract the best quality of instructors it will probably have to match the highest rates being offered in the community.

2. *The amount necessary to attract an individual instructor with special qualifications.* To obtain the services of a psychiatrist, it may be necessary to offer him a higher compensation than is offered most other types of instructors. In this case, one would be competing for his service not merely with other educational institutions, but with private patients with whom he could be spending his time.

3. *The tuition rates the participants can afford to pay.* This consideration will greatly influence the rates one can pay instructors, unless there will be outside sources of income with which to subsidize the program. If the participants of a course are to be high-income business men who have strong motivation to take the course, then one can probably afford to pay an unusually good instructor at an unusually high rate. On the other hand, if the clientele is that of a neighborhood settlement, tuition rates will have to be very low and the rate of compensation for instructors will have to be in proportion—except that in this case one may be able to interest the "best" instructors in giving courses as a public service.

The question is often raised: Should all instructors be paid at the same rate, or should there be a flexible scale with certain types of instructors receiving higher rates than others? There are some adult educators who feel that the only fair thing to do is to pay all instructors at the same rate, and they criticize scales as promoting a caste system. There are others who feel that one must face the fact that a man who has achieved a higher pay scale in his regular work expects a higher rate of compensation than one whose normal income is lower. They point out that it is necessary to pay more to interest a highly trained professional man than to interest a highly competent arts and crafts teacher. Similarly, a psychiatrist will generally demand a higher rate than a psychologist. If a program is to be enriched with this kind of leadership, the pattern of different rates of compensation that has been established in our society may have to be accepted.

If the flexible scale of compensation is adopted, it would

probably be advisable to establish quotas for each level of compensation. In a given program the quotas might be twenty instructors at $5 per hour, ten at $7.50, five at $10, and two at $15. In this way the tendency to move all the instructors toward the top rate would be avoided.

## TRAINING AND SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTORS

The selection of good instructors is only the first step in producing a good teaching staff. Even the best instructor cannot do his best job unless he has been properly oriented into the program. He should understand its objectives, its philosophy of education, its methods, and exactly where he fits into the organization. During his entire tenure he should have a progressive sense of belonging and of personally growing. How can such an orientation be achieved? Several methods can be suggested.

### *Individual Conferences*

The basic tool of supervision and training is the periodic interview with individual instructors. Certainly the program director should have one or more extended interviews with an instructor between the time of employment and the first meeting of his course. During these interviews the instructor should be given an understanding of the background of the organization—its history, purpose, and total program. He should be given some insight into the nature of the adult students he will be teaching, and what they are likely to expect of him. He should be acquainted with the physical and staff resources that will be available. Above all, he should be injected with the spirit of the program; he should be challenged to do a creative job of meeting the real needs of the participants. He should be told that the course is his personal responsibility, that he does not have to follow a stereotyped outline developed by someone else, but can try out his own ideas and the ideas of course members. He should be assured that the program director will stand ready to discuss his plans with him and make suggestions, but that in no case will he seek to impose an authoritarian pattern.

Following the initial orientation interviews, there should be subsequent interviews—in decreasing frequency as the instructor gains experience—to help the instructor evaluate his progress and to make suggestions growing out of the program director's experience with other situations. These interviews need not be formally scheduled, but might take place in the hallway between classes or at the end of the evening.

*Printed Materials*

At the time of employment, each instructor should be given copies of printed materials describing the organization and its program, including folders, reports, activities schedules, and other descriptive materials. All instructors should be put on the mailing list to receive subsequent printed materials as they are issued. Many adult educators also make it a point of obtaining reprints of articles and reports bearing on subjects concerning adult education as a movement, teaching methods, or specific courses, and circulating these among their instructors.

*Internal Memoranda*

If judiciously used, internal memoranda can be a valuable tool of good administration. They can be used to acquaint instructors with new policies, procedures, and activities. They may contain announcements to be made to the classes. Certainly each instructor should have an explanation in writing before the opening meeting of his part in the registration and opening night processes. An example of such a memorandum is shown in Exhibit 5.

EXHIBIT 5

**PROCEDURES FOR FACULTY**

CENTRAL Y.M.C.A. ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM

Chicago, Illinois

A. Registration and Enrollment

1. All students should be enrolled in the adult education department, third floor, before being admitted to class.
2. Students who wish to visit classes prior to enrollment may be issued guest passes at the adult education registration table, provided the class they wish to visit is not filled to capacity.

B. Class Cards and Attendance Records

1. At the first meeting of each course (and in the case of new students in subsequent meetings) the instructor should take from each student the class card which bears the name of the course involved, or a guest pass. If a student does not have such a card, send him to the adult education office, third floor.
2. Indicate presence of the student by checking in the proper square opposite "Record of Attendance." To record absences, write "A."
3. Class cards should be left in each instructor's folder in the instructors' boxes at the close of each evening.
4. Regular class books will be issued about the end of the second week, in which attendance will be indicated as above. These, also, should be left in the instructor's file between meetings.

C. Opening Night

1. Please write your name and subject on the board at the beginning of the period.
2. It is suggested that, in order to increase the atmosphere of informality and friendliness which is fundamental to our program, a short period be set aside at the first meeting for each student to introduce himself and give a brief description of his background and interests in the course.
3. A supply of "Instructor's Information Cards" is in your folder, for use at your option in obtaining background data about individuals in your group.

D. Since many of the courses will meet in places other than the Y.M.C.A., we should like each instructor to provide us with an itinerary of the various places the class will meet at subsequent sessions. If you will leave this list with Mrs. Cremer, registrar, we shall mimeograph copies for each member of your classes so that there will be no doubt in their minds as to where the class is going to meet. We shall appreciate your co-operation.

E. Administrative Communications
Each instructor is requested to examine his folder in the file before each meeting. Announcements and memoranda will be placed in these folders.

### *Course Plans*

A device that is useful in helping an instructor to a good start is a written course plan. This plan might be in the form of a topical outline for the course. There is a danger, however, that such an outline would produce too rigid a frame of mind in the instructor, so that he would not be sufficiently sensitive to the individual needs of the participants. The questions in

the sample course plan in Exhibit 6 seem to ask for much more significant information than would be contained in a topical outline.

EXHIBIT 6

## INSTRUCTORS' COURSE PLAN

Each instructor is requested to prepare this planning sheet in duplicate, one copy to be returned to the Director of Adult Education, the other to be retained by the instructor. The purpose of the planning sheet is threefold: (1) to facilitate co-operative planning between administration and faculty; (2) to serve as a guide to the instructor in the development of the course; and (3) to provide an instrument of evaluation at the end of the term.

*Name of Course* ______________________________

*Instructor* ______________________________

I. Aims
   A. What is the general scope and purpose of this course?
   B. What specific results do you hope to achieve with individuals?

II. Instruction Methods and Content
   A. What content do you plan to cover in the course?
   B. What is your plan of development of the content—what will be the sequence?
   C. What devices do you plan to use to detect, arouse, and maintain student interest?
   D. What course materials—texts, outlines, audio-visual aids, etc.—do you plan to use?
   E. How will students participate in the process? List specific plans for discussions, assignments, projects, field trips, tests, etc.

III. Evaluation
   A. By what criteria will you judge the success of your course?
   B. How will you measure and appraise student progress?

The course plan should, of course, be discussed with the instructor at an interview prior to the beginning of the course.

### *Faculty Meetings*

Faculty meetings are usually more difficult to schedule in informal adult education programs than in formal schools, where the teachers are employed full time. The teachers of informal evening courses are usually busy people, and it is difficult to

bring them together as a group at any one time. Faculty meetings have many advantages, however, over other methods of training, and should be held at least two or three times a year. During the two or three weeks between terms is usually a propitious time, since courses are not in session.

Probably the best type of faculty meetings is that in which there is a free discussion by the teachers of problems that concern them. One very successful faculty meeting, for instance, was devoted entirely to a discussion of "What is a good learning situation?" After a two-hour discussion this faculty had listed over a dozen characteristics of the "ideal" learning situation and, in the process, had developed a much better feeling of *esprit de corps* and unity of purpose. Faculty meetings can also be used for training teachers in the use of audio-visual aids, for discussing case problems, for participation by the teachers in policy determination, for giving special recognition, and for joint planning.

### *Class Visitation*

Adult education administrators do not agree as to the desirability of direct observation by members of the staff of classes in session. Some administrators feel that it is only by visiting classes that they can really know what is going on in their program. They also feel that the instructors appreciate having the administrative staff show enough interest in their work to drop around and see them in action. Other administrators feel that instructors resent their visiting classes and think of it as snooping. They also hesitate to cause the interruption that is involved when a strange person enters a class in session. Probably the only solution to the problem is to let the faculty decide for themselves, individually and as a group, whether they would find class visitations a help or a hindrance.

### *Observation*

An alternative to class visitations by members of the staff is periodic controlled observation by graduate students from a near-by university, by members of the directing committee, or by other disinterested outsiders. It would seem advisable, how-

ever, to arrange such visitations only with the co-operation of the faculty, and to make their reports available to the faculty.

*Narrative Records*

A simple narrative account of each course meeting serves several purposes: (1) It enables the instructor to communicate his concerns and observations to the supervisor; (2) it enables the supervisor to keep in touch with what is happening in every course; (3) it provides a convenient method for bringing to the attention of the supervisor any needs of course members, such as the need for counseling, that should be taken care of outside the course; (4) it helps the instructor to evaluate himself and to measure the progress of the group.

Narrative reports may follow a standard form, with each instructor answering the same set of questions, or they may be free-running expressions. A degree of uniformity is required, however, if the supervisor wishes to make comparisons among courses. The minimum information a supervisor should be able to get from narrative reports is the following:[2]

1. Subject matter development
2. Methods, techniques, and materials used
3. Group behavior and growth
4. Individual behavior and growth
5. Interpretations of the instructor
6. Individual and group problems requiring further attention

## BUILDING FACULTY MORALE

Certainly one objective of the whole process of training and supervision is to build good faculty morale—to bring about an enthusiastic pooling of effort toward a common goal. Good morale is largely achieved when the instructors have a clear understanding of the objectives of the organization for which they are working and subscribe wholeheartedly to them. This puts a burden on the program director constantly to inter-

[2] For a fuller treatment of the use of records in supervision, see Grace Coyle, *Studies in Group Behavior* (New York: Association Press, 1937), and Hedley S. Dimock and Harleigh B. Trecker, *The Supervision of Group Work and Recreation* (New York: Association Press, 1949).

pret these objectives and to give them a sense of significance. Good morale also involves a feeling of belongingness on the part of the faculty members. This feeling can be produced by giving them an opportunity to take part in the making of decisions affecting them, by inviting their participation in ceremonial occasions, and by extending to them the privilege of partcipating in other regular activities of the institution. Their morale is likely to be improved, also, if they are given a sense of being a part of the important larger movement of adult education through being invited to attend meetings and conferences sponsored by adult education councils and associations.

## Administrative Procedures

To an adult participant, administrative red tape is likely to be regarded as a necessary evil, the less of it the better. To a program director, administrative procedures are instruments of orderly control, the more complete the better. Good practice strikes a balance between these points of view. The administrative procedures should be simple and flexible enough to inspire the good will rather than the ire of the adult students, but they should be thorough enough to provide the basic requirements of good administration. The following procedures are usually required for almost all informal course programs.

### REGISTRATION PROCEDURES

#### *Forms and Records*

Careful thought should be given to the drafting of the forms required for registration of students. They should be as simple as possible and should ask only for the minimum amount of information needed for carrying on the program efficiently. The forms illustrated in Exhibit 7 have been devised for a rather extensive program in an institution offering many other services and containing a centralized business office. These forms can be simplified and adapted to less extensive programs.

#### *Sequence of Service*

The process of registration should be carefully worked out in advance, if a large number of participants is expected, in order

EXHIBIT 7

## REGISTRATION FORMS

### CENTRAL YMCA ADULT EDUCATION ENROLLMENT CARD

**To Student:** Please print, in ink. Do not fill in subjects; this is done by the Registrar. After you have completed your enrollment, exchange this card for class cards immediately.

Name Mr. / Mrs. / Miss ____ Home Phone ____
Last First Initial

Address ____ Zone ____

Employer ____ Bus. Phone ____

Address of Firm ____ Occupation ____

Age ____ Married ____ Single ____ YMCA Member ____ Veteran ____

Education: 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 (Circle last year) 1 2 3 4 (College) 1 2 3 4 (Other)

| COURSE TITLE | DAY | HOUR |
|---|---|---|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

813 10M L&C 4-49

Approved ____ Date ____

### THE CENTRAL YMCA ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM

FOR CASHIER'S OFFICE

IF THIS STUDENT HAS NEVER BEEN ENROLLED IN CENTRAL YMCA SCHOOLS BEFORE CHECK HERE ☐

NAME MR. / MRS. / MISS ____
(LAST) (FIRST) (INITIAL)

ADDRESS ____ CITY ____

DO NOT WRITE BELOW THIS LINE

| | CHARGE OR COURSE | AMOUNT | DATE | RECEIPT | AMOUNT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
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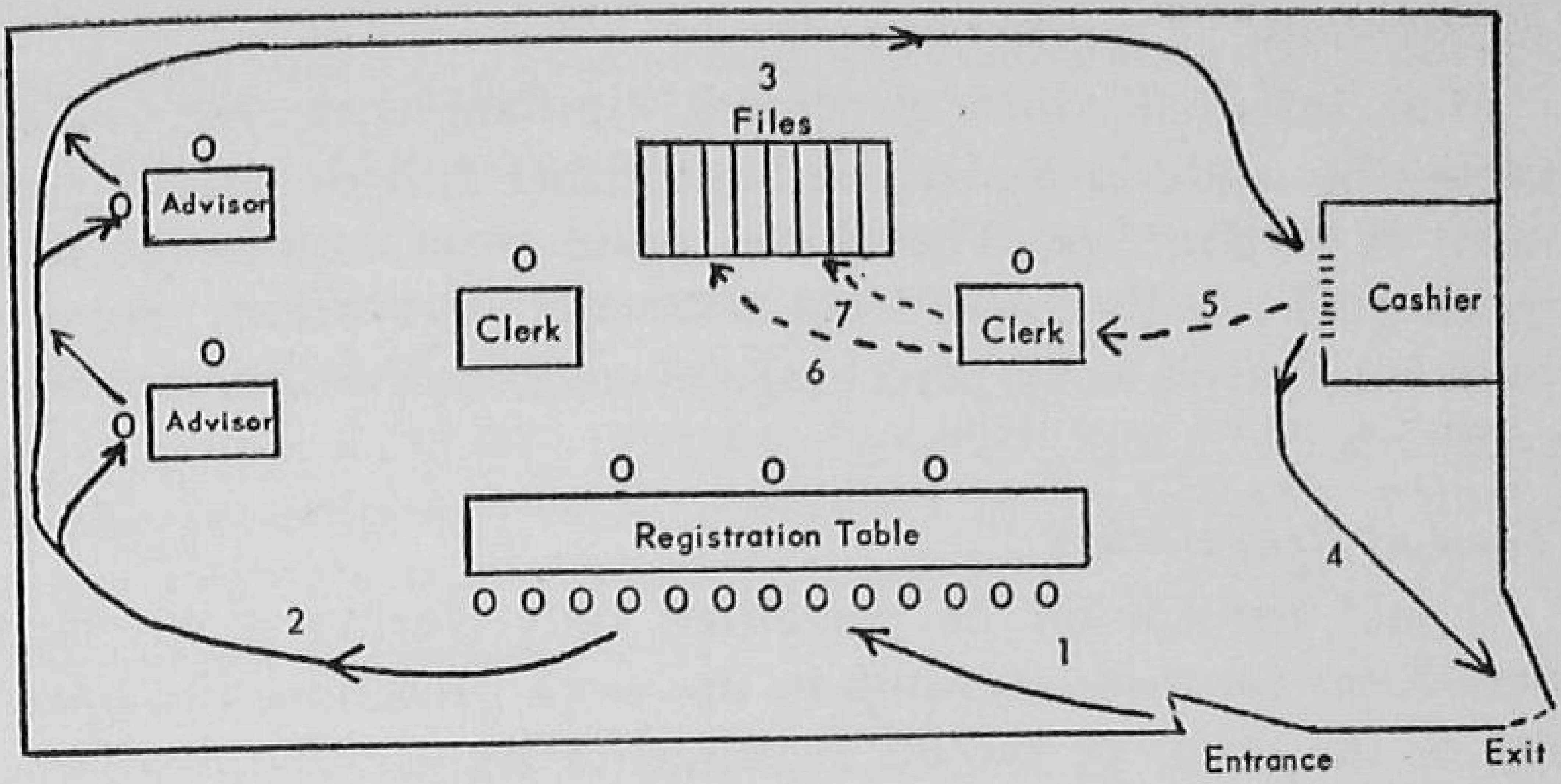
| | | | | | |
| APPROVED BY | DATE | | | | |

501 33M 8-46 L&C

that there will be a smooth and efficient movement of registrants. A very useful device in achieving this end is the "traffic flow chart," such as the one illustrated in Exhibit 8, page 109.

EXHIBIT 8

## REGISTRATION TRAFFIC FLOW CHART




### *Control of Class Size*

Usually in informal classes a limit is placed on class size—below a certain minimum the course will be cancelled and above a set maximum either enrollments will not be accepted or additional sections will be opened. In order that the program director may know at any time how many students are enrolled in each class a simple enrollment chart can be maintained by one of the clerks. As she makes out a class card for each enrollment, she merely places a check after that course in the chart, as shown below in Exhibit 9.

EXHIBIT 9

## ENROLLMENT CHART

| Course | Enrollments | Limit |
|---|---|---|
| Painting As A Hobby ......... | ///// ///// ///// /// | 18 |
| Section No. 2 ............ | ///// // | 18 |
| Current Events............... | /// | 25 |
| Speaking In Public .......... | ///// ///// ///// /// | 25 |

It may be desirable also, in the case of courses that have reached their maximum quota of enrollments and in which additional sections cannot be opened, to maintain a waiting

list of people who would like to enroll in the course if one of the present enrollees drops out.

*Reservations*

Most informal course programs stipulate that reservations cannot be made in courses without either full or partial payment of tuition fees. They have found from experience that much grief usually comes from accepting reservations without payment. Only a small percentage of such reservations are ever taken up.

*Time of Registration*

Should registration be permitted only during a specified period, say for three evenings in the week preceding the opening of the term, or should registration services be available during normal working hours continuously for a period of a week or two before and after classes start? Both systems have wide acceptance and each has certain advantages.

When registration is concentrated into a short period in advance of the starting of classes there is likely to be a high percentage of advance registrations, which means less confusion on opening nights. Also, concentration makes possible the more efficient use of man power, clerical and advisory. It has certain disadvantages, however, including the greater inconvenience to enrollees, more waiting lines, and more tendency to hurry the process of registration. In addition, there will always be a large percentage of people who will not come in to register before the opening night anyway.

By permitting registration any time during working hours, including certain evening hours, for a week or two prior to the start of the term, the adult students will be able to come in at a time convenient to them. The process is likely to be less hurried and more informal, and there will probably be less waiting. This system, however, involves the scheduling of more staff time to registration. The experience in one institution following this policy has been that about one-half of the total enrollments take place in advance of the opening night (with plenty of urging in the literature to "enroll in advance, save time, and

be sure of a place"). Most of the remaining enrollments occur during the first week, but there are some stragglers as long as three weeks after the opening date.

*Registration by Mail*

A number of programs permit students to register simply by sending in a written request accompanied by a check or money order. It is difficult to understand how the evils arising when students are not properly counseled can be avoided if this practice is followed. Several program directors report that the percentage of drop-outs and complaints is considerably higher among students who register by mail than it is among those who register personally.

## OPENING NIGHT PROCEDURES

Every program director should be prepared for a series of crises during the opening week of a program of informal courses. It seems that some are inevitable, although good planning can reduce them to a minimum. Here are some suggestions that may be helpful:

1. Have directional signs in strategic spots pointing out the flow of traffic.

2. Have the doors of activity rooms clearly marked, preferably with signs indicating the courses meeting in them.

3. Have members of the committee or former students who know the physical facilities posted in lobby areas to help new students find the proper locations.

4. Be prepared to discontinue courses that have insufficient enrollment quickly and without embarrassment. It is wise to have established in advance a chart of minimum enrollments for each course. In some cases it may be desirable to continue a course with a borderline number of enrollments, because of its intrinsic worth in a balanced program, or an unusual degree of enthusiasm among the students, or some other extenuating circumstances. It may sometimes be desirable to carry a course conditionally for another week, especially if there is good indication that additional students can be picked

up meantime. The director should feel no embarrassment in closing a course if he accepts the fact ahead of time that there will always be a certain percentage of failures in a program that is courageous in exploring new needs and interests. Students enrolled in courses that are discontinued should be offered their choice between a cash refund and transferring to another course (the latter alternative is a much more likely possibility if the course is discontinued early in the opening meeting).

5. Prepare the instructor carefully to handle their responsibilities during the opening meetings. These duties will usually consist of collecting admission cards, introducing themselves and the subject, establishing a friendly group feeling, and determining the needs and interests of the students. This latter objective might be greatly advanced by the use of a simple information card for students to fill out as they are waiting for class to begin (thus sparing them the discomfort of sitting idly while the class assembles). Exhibit 10 illustrates such a card.

EXHIBIT 10

**INSTRUCTOR'S INFORMATION CARD**
**Adult Education Program**

NAME ..............................................................

ADDRESS ..............................................................

EMPLOYER ..............................................................

TYPE OF WORK (position) ..............................................................

AGE .................. MARITAL STATUS ..............................................................

EDUCATION ..............................................................

..............................................................

What do you want to get out of this course? ..............................................................

..............................................................

..............................................................

## ATTENDANCE RECORDS, GRADES, AND CERTIFICATES

Some adult educators object to keeping attendance records in informal course programs for the reason that it introduces an element of formality and, by implication, of compulsion that is foreign to the spirit of voluntary adult learning. Many program directors, however, feel that attendance records are necessary to efficient administration. Attendance records give an indication, for instance, as to how well the individual instructors are maintaining the interest of their students.

Simplified standard attendance records can be obtained from any school supply house. The names of the students enrolled in each course should be entered at the end of the second or third week (after the enrollment has stabilized) by the office clerk, from the class cards in her file. It is advisable to have the instructors leave the attendance records in the office between class meetings in order that the program director can check them periodically.

Attendance records can also be valuable in following up on absentees. In some institutions it is the practice to send a friendly postcard to each student who has been absent for two consecutive meetings. Experience has shown that frequently students have simply grown out of the habit of coming to class and that such a reminder revives their interest.

Attendance records are obviously necessary where it is a policy to refund tuition to students who maintain a certain percentage of attendance (a practice fairly common in public high school evening course programs) or when certificates of attendance are awarded. This latter practice, while not yet very common, has much to recommend it. For, although informal courses do not carry any credit, there is a strong feeling on the part of many adults that they would like to have something to show for their efforts. A simple attendance certificate, stating specifically the nature of the achievement, will often fill a real need.

Should grades be given in informal courses? The general practice is against it. Adults engage in education because they want to learn something. The test of their achievement, then, is not whether they can learn better than someone else, but

whether they have learned what is useful to them. It is important for adults to have some way to measure their own progress, and for teachers to be able to appraise development, but there are more natural and meaningful ways of doing this than grades. The use of grades introduces an element of formality and competition that runs counter to the very spirit of informal adult education.

It may be impossible for a program director to avoid the use of grades if his courses are closely associated with credit programs or if grades are required by law. In such a case, he must make provision in his record system for the recording of grades.

## Financial Policies and Practices

No phase of adult education has more confusion or a wider variation in practice than finance. This situation arises in part out of the heterogeneity of organizations sponsoring adult programs, ranging from completely subsidized public school or state university programs to completely self-supporting voluntary organization programs. It arises in part, also, out of differences in point of view among adult education leaders—from those who believe that society has an obligation to provide free education to all who want it for as long as they want it, to those who believe that adults should pay entirely for their own education.

In spite of the wide variations in practice, it is possible to suggest certain basic principles for the financing of informal course programs.

### ESTABLISHING AN OVER-ALL FINANCIAL POLICY

The same principles of good business management should be applied to informal course programs that pertain to any other activity involving financing. One of the primary requirements of good business management is a clear general financial policy. This policy ought to include at least the following elements:

1. Source of authority for budget approval and financial policy determination

2. Limitations, if any, on specific budgetary items (in some governmental programs, for instance, the amount that can be allocated to administrative expense is limited to a percentage of the total budget)

3. Prorating of overhead costs where other programs or services are being operated under the same sponsorship

4. Degree of self-support that will be aimed for; limitations on the subsidy that will be forthcoming

5. Methods and standards of accounting

6. Bases for computing fees charged to participants

7. Sources of income other than fees, and conditions under which they are to be exploited

8. The nature and frequency of financial reports that will be required.

## ESTABLISHING COURSE FEES

There is a general lack of agreement among adult educators as to the proper basis for determining the proportion of costs that should be carried by the participants. It might be helpful, however, to list some of the typical practices. An examination of over thirty folders from a wide variety of programs reveals these tuition charges to be in effect in 1948-1949:

University of California University Extension: 10 weekly meetings of 1½ hours @ $7.50; 12 meetings of 2½ hours @ $15; 18 meetings of 2½ hours @ $22.50

Evening School of the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Works, Chicago: 13 meetings of 1½ hours @ $3.50

Seattle Y.M.C.A. Adult Hobby School: 8 meetings of 1½ hours @ $5 ($3.50 for Y.M.C.A. members) or $4 each for married couples

The Adult School of Montclair, New Jersey: 10 meetings of 1 hour @ $5, $6.50, and $8; 10 meetings of 1½ hours @ $3, $5, $6.50, and $8; 10 meetings of 2 hours @ $5, $8, and $10

Dayton Y.M.C.A. Informal School: 8 meetings of 1½ hours @ $4 ($3 for Y.M.C.A. members); 10 meetings of 1½ hours @ $6 ($5 for Y.M.C.A. members)

The Institute of Adult Studies of the Anshe Emet Synagogue, Chicago: 12 meetings of 1½ hours @ $5

Maine, Illinois, Township High School Adult Evening School: 10 meetings of 2 hours @ $5 plus registration fee of $1

Association School, Huntington Avenue Y.M.C.A., Boston: 10 meetings of 1 hour @ $6; 10 meetings of 1½ hours @ $5 and

$7; 10 meetings of 2 hours @ $8 and $10. Reductions of from $1 to $2 are given to Y.M.C.A. members and servicemen

Boston Center for Adult Education: 10 meetings of 1 hour @ $6.50 and $7; 10 meetings of 2 hours @ $8, $8.50, $9, $9.50, and $10.50

Extension Courses, Chicago Board of Education: $5 deposit for all courses, refunded upon 75% attendance

Chicago Y.W.C.A. Education Workshop: 12 weekly meetings of 1 hour @ $7, $8, and $9 (two $9 courses for $16)

University College, University of Chicago: credit courses @ $45 and $50 per quarter; non-credit special interest seminars @ $12 to $18 for 10 meetings of 2 hours

*Learning for Living* Program, Central Y.M.C.A., Chicago: 10 meetings of 1½ hours @ $10, $12, and $15 (with a 20% reduction for Y.M.C.A. members and veterans)

(A disproportionate number of cases are cited from Chicago in order to illustrate the wide variation in practice within a single community.)

Attempts have been made to develop formulas that will yield the proper tuition charges in a given situation, but none has yet been produced that has met the test of varied experiences. Factors which enter into the determination of course fees include:

1. *Amount of subsidy available.* In many governmental and public school programs, more or less liberal allotments are made for adult education, frequently with limitations placed on the charges that can be made. In some voluntary organizations contributions are received from the community chest or private subscribers, on the understanding that charges to participants will be held to a minimum.

2. *The nature of the clientele being served.* Tuition rates should not be set so high that they will act as an economic barrier to the participants one wishes to attract to the program. On the other hand, the charge should not be so low as to depreciate the value of the course. It seems to be a characteristic of our culture that people tend to value articles or services according to their cost.

3. *The intensity of motivation in the adult students.* In some subjects the motivation seems to be almost universally high, such as public speaking and courses leading to vocational advancement. It is considered good practice by many adult educators to charge at a high rate in these types of courses, in order to be able to carry other subjects which should appear in a well-

balanced program but which seldom pay their own way, such as many of the cultural courses, arts and crafts, and public affairs.

4. *The cost of instruction.* As has been pointed out in the section dealing with compensation to instructors, it is necessary to pay more to certain types of instructors than to others to interest them in teaching. These higher costs can be reflected in the tuition charges for those courses, provided the motivation is proportionately higher on the part of the students. (And students would frequently prefer to pay more to study under Mr. X than to pay less for a course with Mr. Y.)

5. *The standards set by similar organizations in the community.* While the tuition charges in other informal course programs in the community should not necessarily be an inflexible criterion in determining the fees of a program, it would be advisable to study them and to depart from them only for good reason. It may be that a new program will be of a different quality or is designed for a different clientele. On the other hand, the factor of "competitive pricing" might enter in.

For many years it was assumed that informal adult courses could not be self-supporting, that they inevitably required a large subsidy. This assumption may have retarded the growth of the adult education movement, especially among small organizations lacking funds with which to subsidize such a program. A growing body of experience, however, tends to disprove it. Programs of various kinds and sizes are finding adults able and willing to pay their share of the costs.

There may be danger in charging too little for informal courses, with two unfortunate effects. First, adult education has tended to become stereotyped in people's minds as being primarily a charity activity for underprivileged people. While adult education has an extremely important function in serving the lower educational levels of our society, it also has a vital service to render the well-educated levels. In the second place, the practice of undervaluing informal courses has jeopardized its expansion among organizations that cannot afford to subsidize programs highly. As Debatin says, "The courage to put a fair value upon one's work will speedily help to make the product respectable,"[3] and, we might add, more widespread.

[3] Frank M. Debatin, *Administration of Adult Education* (New York: American Book Co., 1938), p. 381.

## DETERMINING COSTS

Loose practices of cost accounting are common. Many course programs are operated as extensions of the larger programs of sponsoring organizations and, as such, use space and administrative services that are not charged directly to them. It is therefore practically impossible to make any kind of meaningful study of the comparative costs of operation of different informal course programs. This practice makes it difficult for the sponsoring organization or the director of informal courses to arrive at any accurate estimate of the cost of operating an informal course program.

Good business practice requires that the budget of an informal course program include its prorated share of such institution-wide costs as building operation, administrative services, and other overhead items.

Specific methods for determining such direct operating expenses as promotion and instruction are considered in Chapter 9 and earlier in this chapter, and their amalgamation into an expense budget will be discussed in Chapter 8.

## SOURCES OF INCOME OTHER THAN TUITION

In actual practice informal adult course programs are rather heavily subsidized. Some of the chief sources of support in addition to tuition income are as follows:

1. *Federal funds* for programs sponsored by Federal agencies and for the subsidizing of such local programs as agricultural extension and TVA.

2. *State funds* directly supporting such state-supported programs as state university extension and indirectly supporting local public school programs through legislative grants.

3. *Public school funds,* limited usually to the support of public school programs.

4. *Industrial funds.* These are used in three ways: (a) to support programs sponsored by industries for their own personnel; (b) to subsidize non-industrial programs through contributions; and (c) to pay the tuition charges in whole or in part for the enrollment of their own personnel in non-industrial programs. Many community agencies receive generous support from industries whose workers they serve.

5. *Community funds and private contributors.* A willingness

has been shown on the part of many community chests and private contributors to support adult education programs when they can demonstrate that they are providing valuable service to the community.

6. *Grants from foundations* for research projects, publications, and experimental programs.

7. *Profits from the sale of books and materials.* In larger programs this may be a worth-while source of income. Many adult educators feel, however, that they should supply books and materials at cost.

8. *Veterans Administration.* While it is possible for some informal course programs to qualify under the G.I. Bill of Rights, few have found it to be worth while. The Bill was designed primarily for the enrollment of veterans in credit programs, and many limitations are placed on allowances for non-credit courses. Furthermore, the tuition costs of informal courses are usually comparatively so small that it is hardly worth the time it takes for a veteran to obtain a certificate of eligibility.

While it may be desirable as a general goal for informal course programs to become self-supporting, it is unwise in most cases for a new program to be started without some source of support other than tuition. The process of building up a new clientele requires investment. Few programs have achieved a balanced budget during the first year or two of their existence. Probably the most common method of obtaining this additional support among private organizations is to estimate the amount of subsidy that will be required during the first year and then to conduct a well-planned finance campaign to raise the required amount from private contributors.

### PAYMENT PRACTICES

Good will can be made or lost in the financial relationships an organization establishes with its participants. If policies regarding payments are too lenient, they are likely to leave an impression of carelessness and poor administration. If they are too hard and inflexible, they are likely to give an organization the stigma of commercialism. As in most things, the golden mean is probably best, though not always easy to achieve.

Whatever financial rules are finally decided on should be stated clearly and circulated conspicuously, in order that the chances

of misunderstanding are reduced to a minimum. Even then the program director should be prepared for a small proportion of people who will demand special favors and refuse to abide by the rules.

*Deferred Payments*

The practice of permitting students to pay their tuition charges over an extended period of time may add to the convenience of many students and reduce the economic barrier to their enrollment, but it involves a number of dangers and disadvantages. It complicates the accounting system required and involves unpleasantness in the collecting of overdue bills. It may encourage marginal participants to encumber themselves with debt when they should really be helped with scholarships. Some adult educators claim that the percentage of drop-outs among students making deferred payments is much greater than that among students who have paid in advance.

The practice regarding deferred payments is largely determined by the size of tuition charges. Most programs in which the tuition is $15 or less make no provision for deferred payments, while a majority of those with tuition charges greater than $15 have some kind of extended payment plan. These plans usually require payment in two or three installments before the end of the term and make an accounting charge of $1 to $3 for the privilege. Frequently provision is made for a penalty to be imposed for late payments. If a deferred payment plan is used, provision will have to be made for notifying instructors when students are behind in their payments and are to be barred from class.

*Single Admission and Guest Passes*

It is common practice to permit new students to attend single meetings of classes upon purchase of a single admission ticket (which is taxable, by the way, whereas tuition is not). This practice is seriously questioned by some program directors because it encourages "shoppers" and adds greatly to the confusion of opening meetings. They maintain that if a good job is done in counseling new registrants, single admissions are not

necessary. There may arise exceptional situations, however, in which observation of a class would be helpful in determining whether or not a certain student belongs in it. In this case, it may be desirable simply to issue a guest pass with no charge.

When single admission tickets are sold, the amount paid can usually be credited toward the course tuition if the course has not reached its quota.

*Refunds*

Refunds are so annoying that it is becoming general practice to have a flat no-refund policy. Even the hardest-headed program directors find it almost impossible, however, not to grant special exceptions in the case of authenticated disability or removal from the city. One way to ameliorate the effect of a rigid no-refund policy somewhat is to grant certificates of credit, enabling the student who wishes to drop a certain course to apply the money paid on it to any other course within a specified period, usually one year. This alternative has gone a long way in preserving good will. It is always understood, of course, that refunds will be granted in full when courses are discontinued by the organization.

Those organizations that do grant refunds usually have quite rigid procedures, such as the filing of a formal request in writing giving a full explanation of the reason for desiring a refund, and the review of all requests by a special committee or administrative officer. Refunds are frequently limited to certain "act of God" types of situations and are denied if the student has merely capriciously changed his mind. It is common practice in institutions granting refunds to devise tables showing the percentage of the original payment that will be refunded after one, two, three, four, etc. weeks of attendance. These tables usually deduct a rather large percentage (20 per cent to 30 per cent) for the first meeting, to take care of service costs. Refunds are seldom granted after the midpoint of a term.

*Transfers*

Most organizations are very liberal about allowing students to transfer from one course to another, provided the quota

of the second course has not been filled and provided the transfer is requested within a reasonable time after the beginning of the term. Special procedures must be established for transfers, since registration and financial records will have to be changed.

*Scholarships*

Most informal course programs, especially if their tuition charges are relatively high, make some kind of provision for the granting of full or part scholarships to individuals who would otherwise be barred from the programs. It is general practice either to set aside a certain amount in the budget or to obtain special contributions for this purpose. The conditions under which scholarships are to be granted should be clearly stated by the policy-making committee.

# 6

## CLUBS, GROUPS, FORUMS, AND CONFERENCES

America has been dubbed a nation of joiners. Literally thousands of organized groups of every description dot every section of our map, and there is hardly a citizen who does not belong to at least one of them. The striking thing is that almost all of these organizations have the education of their members as one of their objectives.

Groups differ according to pattern of organization, ranging from the extremely informal arrangements of neighborhood friendship circles to the highly rigid structures of luncheon clubs and women's clubs. Some groups are completely autonomous and can decide on their form of organization and program policies for themselves. Others are affiliated with local, state, or national organizations that require conformity with established patterns of organization and that may even dictate program policies.

### Problems of Organization

The efficient organization of a group is, of course, crucial to its functioning. While it is beyond the scope of this book to discuss organization in detail, we are concerned about how to make clubs, groups, and forums effective instruments of adult education, and we know that certain problems of organization bear on the educational effectiveness of a group. As was pointed out in Chapter 1, the small groups in our society are its laboratories of democracy. If this is so, the quality of the experiences members have in the government of their own groups influ-

ences the skills and attitudes they will carry into governing their nation. Some of the problems of organization that bear on the learning value of the group are briefly described:

1. Groups tend to build up rigidly formal patterns of organization, in which freedom to experiment with dynamic methods of solving problems is seriously inhibited. Problems are often solved superfically by reference to by-laws, rather than in terms of the requirements of the situation.

2. Many groups put a premium on the maintenance of an atmosphere of formality in their deliberations, with the result that free interaction among the members is almost impossible Many a student of group work has had occasion to wish that *Robert's Rules of Order* had never been published, so damaging is it to the free and friendly climate in which groups grow to maturity.

3. Groups often do not have clear and meaningful objectives. In some cases, groups do not take the time to define the goals they want to achieve. In others, they merely accept without thought the objectives handed down from higher authority. Objectives, to be valid, must grow out of the needs and interests of the individuals in each group.

4. Program policies and activities, like objectives, are sometimes imposed or borrowed from some source other than the group itself.

5. Leadership tends to focus its attention on the accomplishment of *things*, rather than the growth of *persons*. Many leaders feel that they are personally responsible for getting things done and thereby prevent the group from learning to deal maturely with its own responsibilities.

## The Role of Education in the Group

There are educational implications in everything a group does; members are learning, whether what they are doing is labeled education or not. Activities that are specifically educational, however, play an important role in the lives of most groups. The functions educational programs perform include the following:

*Facts and knowledge* are brought to group members by speakers, motion pictures, and other authoritative sources. This is probably the function that an overwhelming number of groups give priority to, and yet it is questionable whether in this day of efficient mass communication facts and knowledge are the primary need of educated people.

*A broadening of interests,* through exposure to new ideas, experience with new activities, and other devices, is a function that many groups are performing well. Sometimes there is a tendency to limit the scope of the program to the interests of a dominant few or to the "tried and true" activities.

*A deepening of cultural appreciation* is accomplished partly through exposure to cultural interpretations, such as book reviews, but more effectively through cultural experience, such as participation in dramatic or artistic activities or literary discussion.

*An understanding of social issues,* by having them defined and clarified both through authoritative presentations and through group discussion, is a useful purpose that many groups help to achieve.

*Better human relations* involve skills, attitudes, and knowledge that can be developed through a group's educational program—directly through speeches, film, role-playing, and discussions on human relations problems, and indirectly through the very experience of participating in group life. This function includes the development of both leadership ability and the ability to follow intelligently. It includes training in family living, leisure-time living, work relationships, and, in general, getting along with people.

An organized course is usually a more effective instrument for new learning of an intensive nature, while a club experience provides the best opportunity for practicing and refining the things learned. For example, a person can best learn the basic facts and skills of photography in an organized class, and then develop them and practice them in a camera club. Clubs, groups, and forums are also useful instruments for arousing interests that may later be pursued further in organized classes.

## Problems of Program Planning

At the 1949 convention of the Chicago Conference of Jewish Women's Organizations over one hundred program chairmen were asked to list problems on which they would like help. Their problems, as reported from buzz sessions, are listed below, with brief suggestions on how they can be solved:

1. *How interest members in serious or educational programs?* By determining the needs and interests of the members and building programs around problems that are real to them.

2. *How raise enough money to pay for professional talent and how build a budget for a year?* (See Chapter 8, the section on "Financing the Organization.")

3. *How build a program that will be in keeping with the larger purposes of our organization and will further its objectives?* By taking the time to have every member participate at least once a year in reviewing the general objectives of the organization and setting program priorities for the year. Program ideas will flow naturally out of clearly defined objectives. For example, the objective, "Understanding Jewish Culture" suggests certain kinds of activities immediately—appreciation of Jewish music, literature, etc.

4. *How publicize educational programs in order that people will come?* (See Chapter 9 and 10, with special attention to the telephone committee. Keep in mind, however, that the size of the audience is not necessarily an indication of educational value. Several small study groups may be more worth while than one large mass meeting.)

5. *How get variety into our programs?* Variety can be obtained at two levels: (a) In content, by dealing with a variety of topics or problems; and (b) in method, by rotating speakers, films, debates, discussions, symposiums, role-playing, etc.

6. *How shorten business meetings?* By putting the problem up to the group and helping it establish more efficient procedures.

7. *How hold the audience until the end of the meeting?* Three suggestions: (a) Make the programs vital and interesting; (b) plan the time of meeting in accordance with the habits of the group; (c) get the members ego-involved through participation and spread of responsibility.

8. *How prepare, introduce, and take care of speakers?* (See "The Care and Feeding of Guest Speakers" later in this chapter.)

9. *How make entertaining programs significant?* Select entertainment that will be in keeping with the organization's objectives and provide for interpretation. For example, instead of

having just a piano recital, have an interpretation of Jewish—or American, or international, or local—music.

10. *How to get committees to function efficiently?* (See Chapter 8, the section on "How to Get a Committee to Work.")

## Planning Dynamic Programs

The general principles of program planning given in Chapter 8 can be translated into specific terms for clubs, groups, and forums, as follows:

1. *A democratic committee structure should be established to plan and do the work.* There should be an over-all policy-making and co-ordinating committee, with as many subcommittees as are necessary to get the work done efficiently without placing too heavy a burden on a few people. Ideally, every member of a group should have a committee responsibility in order to spread participation evenly. Typical subcommittee functions include program, education, membership, publicity, refreshments, social, decorations, music, fine arts, literature, budget, public affairs, speakers, motion pictures, exhibits, trips, social action, worship, health, social welfare, leadership training, and the like. Each group should develop a check list of the functions that need to be performed and determine how these functions can best be divided among the members and committees.

All committees should be constituted so as to include a representation of the various interests, points of view, cliques, and abilities found in the group. Many groups ask each member to indicate what committees he would be willing to serve on, and then the actual assignments are made by a "committee on committees." Every committee should have a clear understanding of its duties and responsibilities, preferably stated in a written commission. Special attention should be given to the training of committee leadership teams along the lines described in Chapter 4, in order that mature and smooth-functioning committees will be assured.

2. *The needs and interests of group members should be determined as the basis of all program planning.* Through informal community surveys, interest questionnaires, interviews,

committee discussions, and other devices, the planning committees can obtain information that will help them to create programs based on the real needs and interests of group members. These programs will be of a different quality from those based on what someone—or some group—thinks the members *ought* to have.

3. *Objectives should be clearly stated.* Every member of a group should have a part in deciding what the group should accomplish, and the goals that are finally agreed upon should be clearly understood by all. These goals might include outcomes for individuals, outcomes for the group, outcomes for a sponsoring organization, and outcomes for the larger community. Unless a program committee has clear objectives to go by, it does its planning in a vacuum and is likely to emerge with a rather meaningless hodgepodge of activities.

4. *The program should provide balance and variety.* A dynamic program is full of movement, energy, and change. It is not "the same old stuff." And yet it has balance. It is not overweighted in any direction; it serves the needs of all the people.

## The Care and Treatment of Guest Speakers

A problem of program operation about which group leaders seem constantly to be concerned is the using of resource people, including guest speakers, artists, and entertainers. A checklist of good practices in dealing with guest speakers includes:

1. *Build a file of speakers and sources of speakers.* Such a file, the operation of which is described in Chapter 4, should be considered group property and should be available to everyone carrying program responsibilities. It should contain the sources of speakers on various subjects, such as speakers' bureaus, government agencies, community organizations, department stores, church councils, etc., as well as individuals whose names have been spotted in newspaper stories or otherwise have become known to the group.

2. *Choose the speaker carefully.* Draw up the qualities the group feels to be particularly important, find out what speakers are available on the subject chosen, and select the one most

nearly meeting the group's specifications. Whenever possible, it is desirable to have someone in the group hear him first and report his reactions.

3. *Let the speaker know what is expected of him.* Give him the exact title he is to talk on, or work it out with him. Tell him all about the group, the needs and interests of its members, the program plans as a whole and how he fits into them, and the expected size of the audience. Tell him how much time he will have, where he will come on the program, who will introduce him, and whether there will be a question period, buzz sessions, or discussion. Send him a copy of the program announcement and any other printed material about the group that will increase his knowledge of it. Offer to pay him a fee if possible; if this is not possible, make it clear at the outset. Try to convince the group, however, that it should make provision in its treasury for the compensation of professional leadership and talent.

4. *Get information about the speaker.* Find out what he wants said about him and his subject in the introduction. Ask him to send a glossy photograph for newspaper publicity, if it is needed. Find out if he needs a blackboard or other equipment.

5. *Confirm all arrangements in writing.* Soon after the arrangements are made, they should be confirmed by letter, stating the date, time, and place of the meeting, and detailed directions about how to get there. If the speaker is from out of town, find out if he wants hotel reservations made for him. Have a clear understanding about the amount and time of fee payment, if there is to be one. If the speaker is not from out of town, offer to have a member of the group call for him and drive him home, if possible.

6. *Arrange for the speaker to be met upon his arrival.* Some one person or committee should be responsible for meeting the speaker and providing for his comfort before the meeting begins. Introduce him to people and make him feel at home. If there is to be a business meeting before his part in the program, offer him the choice of staying with the group or being entertained elsewhere.

7. *Be sure that the physical arrangements are suitable.* Check with the speaker about the seating arrangement, equipment, etc., to be sure he is satisfied. Many speakers like to have a glass of water handy.

8. *Introduce the speaker properly.* Except under unusual circumstances, the introduction should be brief, dignified, and to the point. There is often danger that an overenthusiastic chairman will embarrass the speaker with flattery, or will say so much about what he is going to talk on that he has little to add. Experiment with imaginative introductions, such as a role-playing scene depicting the central problem the group would like the speaker to discuss.

9. *Have a question period, if possible.* Most speeches would be improved if shortened and the discussion period lengthened. If the subject is controversial it is important for the audience to ask questions and comment. It is general practice for the chairman to preside at the question period, and to restate the questions when they are not clearly understood, although some speakers prefer to handle the questions themselves.

10. *Thank the speaker at the meeting and by letter.* It is good taste to express the appreciation of the group at the close of the meeting. In addition, a personal letter should be written within a week after the meeting giving an evaluation of the group's reactions. Most speakers appreciate being told not only what they did well, but how they might have served the needs of a particular group better. Press clippings about the speaker might be enclosed, if there are any.

## Special Interest Groups

The program committee of a club or group need not be limited in its thinking to activities for the entire membership. Frequently a small proportion of the total group will be highly interested in an activity in which the rest of the group has no interest. Many groups have discovered that to overrule such an activity by majority vote results in resentment and conflict.

A dynamic program makes provision for the formation of special interest groups as the need for them arises. Sometimes these special interest groups are on a short-term basis, sometimes

permanent. Generally they establish their own operating structure and procedures and arrange their own program, subject to co-ordination in the over-all program committee. Often these groups arrange to have their meetings just before or just after the meetings of the larger group.

## Social Action Projects

The criticism is frequently made of informal adult education that it consists merely of talk, that it never leads to action. Many groups have found that a good educational program sometimes causes certain members to be aroused about a problem to the point where they want to do something about it. Although a social action project may not be feasible or appropriate for every group, it should be given serious consideration as a desirable outcome of an educational program.

The following steps can be suggested for organizing social action projects:

1. *Form a group of people interested in social action.* This group may start out as a handful of people who plan the initial projects, with the hope that additional people will be attracted by specific projects. The group may take the form of an informal special interest group, or it may be an officially established social action committee. In any case, the group must guard against undertaking any action that would commit members of the organization who do not belong to the social action group. Action that involves the organization as a whole should be submitted to it for approval.

2. *Select a project.* Homer Jack suggests several yardsticks to guide a group in selecting projects:

> A *local* project may be better than a far-away one.
> A *specific* project may be better than an abstract one.
> An *urgent* project may be better than an eternally-troublesome one.
> A *pioneering* project may be better than a fashionable one.
> A *short-term* project may be better than a long-term one.
> An *achievable* project may be better than a frustrating one.[1]

[1] Homer A. Jack, *Primer for Social Action.* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1950), p. 6. The author has drawn heavily from this source in the development of this section.

3. *Get the facts.* The group should decide what facts it needs to know in order to make wise judgments about the problem selected, and then set up a plan for gathering these facts. Certain members may agree to examine written sources of information, including newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, books, census reports, municipal records, etc. Others may accept assignments to interview political leaders, labor leaders, industrialists, social workers, or other people possessing information of value to the project. Some of these people may be invited to meet with the whole group, or the group may go on tours to get firsthand information about conditions bearing on the problem.

4. *Map a strategy.* Once the facts are in, the group can analyze the problem and devise a strategy for doing something about it. This strategy may, and probably should, involve educating the members of the larger organization about the problem, through reporting to it, distributing literature, holding public meetings, and using other educational techniques. The final strategy, if the project is to be more than simply information-getting, must involve some kind of direct action.

5. *Take action.* Social action means, in essence, influencing some person or organization to bring about some kind of change. Jack lists the following direct action techniques that groups can use to make their influence felt:

> *Resolutions,* which should be based on ethical principles, should be factual, should be positive, and should be specific. Resolutions should be sent not only to the individuals and organizations concerned, but also to newspapers, organizations, and other builders of public opinion.
>
> *Letters* to newspapers, magazines, political leaders, and other force centers in the community. They should not be stereotyped, but should be personalized and should state facts and reasons.
>
> *Political action*—the democratic technique of helping elect the "right" men and women to public office and then having them vote "correctly." This need not—and for most groups should not—mean coming out for specific candidates, but rather it involves pointing up the important issues and publicizing the stands of the various candidates on these issues. It means keeping in touch with public officials, persuading them through telephone calls,

telegrams, letters, and petitions. It means attending hearings, legislative meetings, and so forth, and speaking out.

*Conferences,* in which the various parties involved are brought together for discussions looking toward the negotiation of joint solutions.

*Delegations* may be formed to visit policy-makers on a non-political level (e.g., heads of industry, executives of government, etc.) Delegations present a policy-maker with a group's point of view and try, through their conviction and persuasiveness, to get him to change his position.

*Non-violent demonstrations,* such as picketing and boycotting, are valid tools of social action if all other techniques have been exhausted and if they are undertaken in the spirit of non-violence and good will.

*The action council,* consisting of representatives of several groups uniting to take joint action on a single project, is appropriate when more strength is required than can be mustered by a single organization.[2]

With the recent psychological evidence that people seldom change their attitudes or behavior constructively as a result of force, social action is tending to rely less on aggressive power and more on the scientific assessment and educational use of the forces for change existing in individual situations. It is becoming a process of working with people toward change, rather than pushing against them.

## The Conference as an Educational Experience

The conference, or institute, or gathering of people for a brief period of intensive joint deliberation, is one of the backbones of informal adult education in our country. Throughout the year numerous organizations hold one- to three-day conferences to refresh the learnings of their personnel, and the spring and summer months signal the start of uncountable hegiras to more extended conferences. It is within the scope of this work to consider some of the principles and techniques for improving the educational value of conferences.

First, it is necessary to understand the various educational purposes a conference can serve, in order that those purposes can be selected that will best meet the needs of a particular group of

[2] Adapted and summarized from *ibid.*, pp. 16-19.

participants. Among the possible functions a conference can perform are the following:

*Presentation of information.* This is probably the function that most people associate with conferences, since the most common pattern of conference organization consists of a series of meetings in which experts read papers or make addresses. There is reason to believe, however, that more faith has been placed in this form of education than is justified. On many occasions the presentation of facts is desirable and necessary, but other needs are probably more pressing than is usually recognized, and other forms of information-giving may be more effective than formal speeches.

*Inspiration.* The mere meeting together of a large number of people with common concerns is often an inspiring experience. Inspiring goal-setting addresses or discussions may also help the delegates to raise their sights and gain new conviction.

*Exchange of experience.* The cross-fertilization of ideas that comes from exchanging experiences is a stimulant to improved practices. Delegates can learn a great deal from the successes and failures of others.

*Training.* Conferences are excellent instruments for helping delegates to learn new skills or improve old ones. They provide opportunities for gaining both knowledge and practice under controlled conditions and in concentrated doses.

*Problem solving.* Frequently delegates come to conferences with real problems, either of their profession, or of back-home operations, that can be solved better at a conference than in any other way. This is a function that has probably been undervalued more than any other in typical conference planning. The best kind of learning experience is provided in the solving of real problems.

*Commitment to action.* The conference provides one of the few opportunities most similar-minded groups of people have of coming together from a wide area to consider common problems, arrive at a common solution, and commit themselves and those they represent to common lines of action. This is, of

course, the final step in education, and one that many conference planners also tend to undervalue.

There are probably very few occasions in which a conference could serve the needs of its participants by limiting itself to any one of the above functions. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine a conference in which all the functions are not needed.

A form of conference organization that is gaining increasing popularity and that seems, on the basis of experimental evidence, to be able to fill the needs of delegates better than traditional forms of organization, is the *work conference.* Dr. Leland P. Bradford, one of the pioneers in this field, describes the basic principles underlying work conferences as follows:

> 1. The successful work conference demands that problems, rather than topics, be dealt with and that these problems be those seen by the delegates as their problems.
>
> 2. Participants should be involved both before and during the conference in making basic decisions. Only in this way can the conference belong to participants and will participants feel that the conference deals with their problems.
>
> 3. The entire work conference should be designed to assist delegate groups to think straight about their problems. This means that every session of the conference has an important and unique place in the total design and should be planned in relation to the other sessions and their purposes.
>
> 4. Conference planning should include opportunity and assistance for delegates periodically to evaluate both conference product and process in order that continuous improvement in both may be possible.
>
> 5. Work conferences should be designed to make possible a steady progress from problem selection to diagnosis; to solution decisions; to action.[3]

In Dr. Bradford's analysis, the following steps are involved in carrying these principles into practice:

1. *Planning committees* representative of the needs and points of view of all the participants should be formed. It is usually desirable that the committee planning the conference have the assistance of one or more consultants to advise on the technical aspects of conference planning. The committee

[3] Leland P. Bradford, "Planning the Work-Group Conference," *Adult Education Bulletin,* XII, February, 1948, pp. 68-69.

should plan a general design for the conference that will provide for all the functions necessary to meet the needs of the delegates, but that will leave considerable freedom for the delegates to undertake whatever activities their needs require.

2. *Participant involvement,* can be accomplished in two ways: "One is to send out introductory letters asking participants if they feel a conference is called for at this time and asking them to list their crucial problems. These problems can be categorized into a given number of problem areas and sent back to the potential participants for them to select the area in which they wish to work. Another way of involvement is to inform participants, through correspondence, concerning the type of conference to be held and the consequent responsibility they should assume. . . . Certainly bringing participants cold to a conference is to fail rather completely in helping them feel that the conference is their conference."[4]

3. *Changing participant expectancies.* Because conference participants have typically come to expect the kind of conference at which they remain passive and anonymous, it is essential that a thorough interpretation be made to them of the work conference plan and the kinds of responsibilities they must assume to benefit from it.

4. *Conference design.* A general design for the conference should be planned in which each part of the conference has a definite place and purpose in relation to the total conference. Dr. Bradford suggests the following general pattern, with allowance for many variations:

(a) Orientation session, or sessions, helping participants decide what results they wish from the conference and what both staff and participants must do to achieve these results.

(b) The conference groups get started selecting, discussing, and diagnosing their common problem.

(c) A general session in which the conference groups report to each other their progress and their problems and in which there is further stimulation for more group work.

(d) The work groups continue working for one or two more sessions.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 69-70.

(e) The conference meets as a whole again to examine how far it has gone and what its new problems are.

(f) The groups complete their work.

(g) The conference comes together as a whole to examine its production and to make final action decisions.[5]

5. *Conference staff.* There are several staff services that must be performed if the conference is to function well, including over-all co-ordination, the training of group leaders, the training of recorders and preparation of reports, the training of group observers, the planning of general sessions and evaluating meetings, and the supervision of clerical staff and physical facilities. These functions should be divided among a conference staff.

6. *Orientation sessions.* As has been suggested, most delegates have preconceived ideas of conference operation that necessitate a reorientation to this new kind of conference. Dr. Bradford suggests that an opening orientation session might well attempt to accomplish the following tasks:

(a) Describe to participants the steps and stages of conference planning to indicate that all major decisions are yet to be made by participants, that decisions made by staff were in the direction of planning services to aid participants in group thinking rather than to direct participant thought.

(b) Review with the participants the problems selected by themselves through pre-conference correspondence for consideration and solution.

(c) To explore the problems of group productivity, the responsibilities members need to accept, and the service roles to be played by group leaders, recorders, observers, and resource persons.[6]

7. *Selecting and training leaders.* The criteria by which leaders are originally selected should include, among other things, an attitude that indicates a willingness to approach leadership from a group-centered point of view. Even with skillful and experienced group leaders, it is advisable to bring the leaders, recorders, and observers together for a period of pre-conference training. "Such a training program, usually of

[5] *Ibid.,* p. 70.
[6] *Ibid.,* p. 71.

a half to a day in length, should orient leaders to the conference design, to the type of participants expected, to the problem areas, to the roles of group observer and recorder and to the assistance the leader can expect from these persons and from other members of the staff. Following this a quick census of areas in which the leaders expect the most difficulty opens up obvious needs for practice. Usually such areas are: getting the group started, helping them keep on the beam, and keeping the dominant members in check. Spontaneous practice sessions can then be carried on in these crucial areas."[7]

8. *Selecting and training recorders.* Recorders have the important function of keeping communications open among all the groups, and should be trained to perform this function efficiently and uniformly. They might meet separately, as a group, during the pre-conference training program, and then come together with the leaders and observers for joint teamwork training.

9. *Selecting and training observers.* In Chapter 4 the qualifications and duties of observers are stated in such a way as to provide a basis for their selection and training. The observers might well meet as a separate group, also, for training in their specific functions, and then come together with the leaders and observers for joint training.

10. *General sessions.* General sessions serve to bring the conference as a whole together to consider its progress, to evaluate how it is working, to consider new problems, and to learn about the work of the various work groups.

11. *Information sessions.* "Information sessions are sessions in which information needed by subgroups for further consideration of their problems is given in the most efficient fashion. It may be a succinct and fact-crammed talk, a film, a dialogue, or a panel, depending upon the information needed and the resources at hand. Information sessions differ in many ways from typical speeches. They make no effort to convince, to argue, or to beguile. They are essentially information ses-

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 72.

sions scheduled after the conference groups have seen the need for such information."[8]

12. *Resource persons.* "Every conference needs certain resource persons—persons who have specific information, experiences, skills, or points of view useful to the group. The use of such resource persons, however, demands decided planning and skill. Unless the group is prepared to use the resource person in terms of its needs and unless the resource person is prepared in how to be used, he may dominate the group, lead it away from its goal, or fail to contribute needed resources."[9]

13. *Final session.* The final session serves to draw the conference together, evaluate progress made and further progress needed, and make necessary total conference decisions and commitments.

This description of work conference organization is not intended to serve as a manual of operation, but rather to illustrate how some of the principles of education that have been developed throughout this book may be applied to conference planning and management. Further help can be gained from works suggested in the bibliography, but even more fruitfully from the reader's own creative thinking and experimenting.

Clubs, groups, forums, and conferences are, from the point of view of numbers of people reached, the most significant instruments of adult education in our society. If the leaders of these groups will look upon their roles as those of educators, and will master and apply the principles of educational leadership, a major transformation can be brought about in our culture toward greater enlightenment and greater maturity.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 73.
[9] *Ibid.*

# 7

# TYPICAL PROGRAMS OF ADULT EDUCATION

MANY OF THE PRINCIPLES described in the preceding chapters are illustrated by the following schedules of adult education conducted in many parts of the country, in cities of all sizes, in rural areas, by many kinds of agencies. They reveal the scope and richness of the adult education movement, and the possibility of its adaptation to many situations and purposes.

## INFORMAL COURSES

### 1. IN VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS

**THE TOWN HALL SHORT COURSES, New York City, Winter, 1950**

Tuesdays, 5:30-7:30 p.m.
Piano Forum
Wednesdays, 5:30-7:00 p.m.
Contemporary American Music
The Natural Scientist in Action
Thursdays, 5:30-7:30 p.m.
Creative Writing
Travelogues
Thursdays, 8:00-9:30 p.m.
Photography in Action

10 sessions, $10 per course

**THE ADULT SCHOOL OF MONTCLAIR, New Jersey, Spring, 1950**

COURSES MEETING MONDAY EVENINGS
*(Beginning February 6)*

COURSES MEETING 8:00-9:00 P.M.

| | |
|---|---|
| Accordion Playing, Beginners | $ 8.00 |
| Contemporary Ballet | 8.00 |
| Creative Writing | 8.00 |
| Elementary English | 8.00 |
| French | 5.00 |
| Popular Piano Sec. 3 | 5.00 |
| Psychology of Adjustment | 6.00 |
| | 8.00 |

COURSES MEETING TUESDAY EVENINGS
*(Beginning February 7)*

COURSES MEETING 8:00-9:00 P.M.

| | |
|---|---|
| Display for Small Stores | $ 8.00 |
| Flower Arranging | 8.00 |
| Popular Piano Sec. 1 Beginning | 6.00 |
| Speed Reading | 8.00 |
| Stenography II | 8.00 |
| Typing I (New Beginners) | 8.00 |
| Vocabulary & Word Mastery | 5.00 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Spanish I | 5.00 |
| Speed Reading | 8.00 |
| Stenography II | 8.00 |
| Typing I (New Beginners) | 8.00 |

COURSES MEETING 9:10-10:10 P.M.

| | |
|---|---|
| Accordion Playing, Intermediate | $ 8.00 |
| Dominant Ideas | 12.00 |
| English, Intermediate | 5.00 |
| Five American Novelists | 8.00 |
| Popular Piano Sec. 4 | 6.00 |
| Spanish II | 5.00 |
| Stenography III | 8.00 |
| Typing II | 8.00 |

COURSES MEETING AT OTHER HOURS

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Badminton Sec. 1 | $ 3.00 | 7:15- 8:45 |
| Badminton Sec. 2 | 3.00 | 8:45-10:15 |
| Bookkeeping & Acct. | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Ceramics | 12.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Contract Bridge—Int. | 5.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Creative Design | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Golf | 8.00 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| High School English | 2.50 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| High School History | 2.50 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| Leathercraft | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Millinery | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Redecorating Your Home | 8.00 | 8:00- 9:45 |
| Repairing Furn. Fin. | 10.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Slip Cover Making | 7.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Woodworking II | 10.00 | 7:00-10:00 |

COURSES MEETING 9:10-10:10 P.M.

| | |
|---|---|
| Bible as Literature | $ 8.00 |
| Popular Piano Sec. 2 | 6.00 |
| Social Conversation | 7.00 |
| Stenography III | 8.00 |
| Typing II | 8.00 |

COURSES MEETING AT OTHER HOURS

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Badminton Sec. 3 | $ 3.00 | 7:15- 8:45 |
| Badminton Sec. 4 | 3.00 | 8:45-10:15 |
| Dancing | 5.00 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| Drawing & Painting | 10.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Dressmaking | 10.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Effective Business Writing | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Glovemaking | 10.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| High School Com. Arith. | 2.50 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| High School Algebra | 2.50 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| Metalcraft | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Photography—Advanced | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Piloting & Navigation | 8.00 | 8:00- 9:30 |
| Refinishing Furniture | 6.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Salesmanship | 8.00 | 9:10-10:40 |
| Upholstery | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |
| Woodworking I | 8.00 | 8:00-10:00 |

OTHER EVENINGS

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Concert Previews (Wednesday, Feb. 1 and Wednesday, April 12) | $ 1.50 | 8:00-10:00 |

The Adult School of Montclair is a co-operative community project under the authority of the Montclair Board of Education. The degree to which it is rooted in its community is suggested by the strength of its lay organization.

**THE "Y"-ED PROGRAM of the Rochester, New York, Y.M.C.A.-Y.W.C.A. Council, Winter, 1950 Series**

TUESDAYS, 8:00 TO 9:10 P.M.

Security and Individual Freedom
Know Your Music Better
Everyday Legal Problems
Setting Up Your Own Business
And They Were Married
What It Means to Be a Christian

TUESDAYS, 9:15 TO 10:25 P.M.

Ceramics
Square Dancing
The New Look in Radio
Vacation Travel
Recreation for the Club and Home
Intermediate Bridge

TUESDAYS, 10:30 TO 11:00 P.M.
Social recreation, games, dancing, entertainment
8 sessions, $2.50 to $5 per course

**BOSTON CENTER FOR ADULT EDUCATION, Boston, Spring, 1949**

Behind the Headlines (2 sections), 10 hours, $7.50
Accent on Foreign News, 10 hours, $7.50
Our Heritage, 10 hours, $7.00
Fascinating Facts of Science, 10 hours, $7.00
The Stars, 10 hours, $7.00
Seeing the Great Out-of-doors, 20 hours, $8.50
Conversational Chinese (4 sections), 15 hours, $8.25
Conversational English, 30 hours, $11.50
Conversational French (8 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Conversational German (5 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Conversational Italian (4 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Conversational Russian (4 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Conversational Spanish (10 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Law for the Layman, 10 hours, $7.25
Thinking Successfully, 10 hours, $7.00
Psychology of Personality (2 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Psychology of Marriage in a Changing Social Pattern, 10 hours, $7.00
Understanding Yourself, 10 hours, $7.00
Understanding Our Children, 10 hours, $7.00
Living Religions of the World, 10 hours, $7.00
What My Neighbor Believes, 10 hours, $7.00
The Bible, 10 hours, $7.00
Emerson and Modern Life, 10 hours, $7.00
Great Masters of Literature, 10 hours, $7.25
Meeting Great People, 10 hours, $7.00
Modern Literature, 10 hours, $7.25
Shakespeare, 10 hours, $7.25
Short Story Writing (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Creative Writing (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Vocabulary Building (3 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Playwriting, 20 hours, $8.50
Novel Writing, 16 hours, $7.00
Good English Usage (3 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Piano Playing (7 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Singing (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Choral Singing, 10 hours, $7.00
Orchestra, 15 hours, $8.50
Recorder Playing, 15 hours, $7.00
Melody Making, 10 hours, $7.25
Contemporary Music, 10 hours, $7.50
Chamber Music, 10 hours, $7.50
Listening to Symphonic Music (3 sections), 10 hours, $7.75
Harmony and Solfeggio, 10 hours, $7.50
Modern Dance, 10 hours, $8.00
Tap Dancing, 10 hours, $8.25
Folk Dancing, 10 hours, $8.25
Social Dancing (5 sections), 15 hours, $8.75
Exercising to Music (4 sections), 10 hours, $8.50
Little Theater Workshop, 20 hours, $8.50
Radio Dramatics (2 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Play Reading, 20 hours, $8.50
Voice and Diction (8 sections), 10 hours, $7.00
Speaking in Public (3 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Conversation, 8 hours, $6.00
Creative Painting, 20 hours, $9.00
Portrait Drawing and Painting (4 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Life Drawing and Painting (3 sections), 20 hours, $9.00

Pencil Sketching (12 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Landscape Painting (4 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Amateur Photography, 10 hours, $7.00
Finger Painting (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.75
Still Life Painting, 20 hours, $8.50
Cartooning, 20 hours, $8.50
Woodcarving, 20 hours, $8.50
Bookbinding, 20 hours, $8.50
Pottery (3 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Stained Glass Designs, 20 hours, $8.50
Modeling (2 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Metalwork, 20 hours, $8.50
Handwrought Jewelry (10 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Decorating Glass, 20 hours, $8.50
Tray Painting (4 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Leather, Glove, Bag, and Belt Making (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Leatherwork, 20 hours, $8.50
Textile Stenciling (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Dressmaking (9 sections) 20 hours, $8.50
Millinery (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Tailoring (3 sections), 20 hours, $10.75
Designing Your Own Clothes (5 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Decorating Your Home (4 sections), 10 hours, $8.00
Bedspreads, Vanity Skirts, and Curtains, 20 hours, $9.00
Drapery and Slip Cover Making (4 sections), 20 hours, $9.00
Rush Seating, 20 hours, $8.50
Repairing Furniture, 20 hours, $9.25
Furniture Making, 20 hours, $8.50
Upholstering (4 sections), 20 hours, $8.50
Radio Tinkering, 20 hours, $8.50
A Tinker's Course (2 sections), 20 hours, $8.50

## ASSOCIATION SCHOOL, Boston Y.M.C.A., Fall, 1947

MONDAYS

6:30 Design for Dining
7:00 Salesmanship
Leathercraft
8:00 Modern Marriage

TUESDAYS

6:30 Painting
Voice and Diction I
German I
Club Leadership
Stenciling
7:00 Drama Study
7:15 Nutrition in the Headlines
8:00 Voice and Diction II
German II

WEDNESDAYS

6:30 Ballroom Dancing (Beg.)
Making Your Opinions Count
Variety Crafts
7:00 Social Recreation Leadership
The Bible Speaks Today
8:15 Ballroom Dancing (Adv.)
8:30 Variety Crafts

THURSDAYS

6:00 Metalcraft I
6:30 Piano I
Interior Decorating
French I
Portrait Painting
7:00 Finger Painting
Public Speaking
7:30 French II
8:00 Piano II
Metalcraft II
8:30 French III

FRIDAYS

6:00 Spanish I
7:00 Pottery
Creative Writing
Stained Glass
Photography
7:15 Spanish III
8:00 Psychology of Personality
8:30 Spanish II

10 sessions, $6.00 to $10.00 per course

**CLASSES IN MODERN LIVING, Downtown Y.M.C.A., Dallas, Texas**
**Winter, 1950**

Bridge and Canasta (Intermediate)
Photography for Experienced Amateurs
Art for the Beginner
Painting
Conversational Spanish for Beginners
Conversational Spanish, Intermediate
Conversational Italian
Behind the Headlines
Conversational French
Music Appreciation
Life and Teachings of Jesus
Learning to Dance
Modern Ballroom Dancing
Latin American Dancing
Square Dancing for Beginners
Square and Folk Dancing, Intermediate

8 sessions, $5.50 to $8.00

**UNIVERSITY OF LIFE, First Methodist Church, Yankton, South Dakota**
**Spring, 1949**

HIGH SCHOOL YOUTH

Moral Problems Today—
Why Be Good?
Science and Religion
Making the World Christian

COLLEGE AND BUSINESS YOUTH

Religion in Drama
Personalities in Church History
The Book of Life—The Bible

ADULTS

The Methodist Discipline
Outwitting Our Nerves

8 Sunday evenings, no fee

**UNIVERSITY OF LIFE, Council of Churches of Greater Portland, Maine**
**Spring, 1949**

Jesus and Present-day Living
The Family in Modern Life
My Philosophy of Life
Four Problem Areas in World Life

4 Sunday evenings, $1 for the series

**THE INSTITUTE OF ADULT STUDIES, Anshe Emet Synagogue**
**Chicago, Monday Evening Institute, 1947-48**

1ST QUARTER, OCT. 13—DEC. 22

The Jew and the Drama
Jeremiah
The Jew in the World of Today

2ND QUARTER, JAN. 5—FEB. 9

Blueprints for Jewish Palestine

3RD QUARTER, FEB. 16—APRIL 19

The Jewish Arts
Isaiah
Training for Community Leadership

4TH QUARTER, MAY 3—JUNE 7

Blueprints for American Judaism

6 weeks, $5 per course

## SUNDAY MORNING ADULT STUDY GROUP, Oakton United Church

### Evanston, Illinois, 1949-50

Christian Responsibility for Displaced Persons
Learning the Art of Effective Prayer
Sacred Writings of the Great Religions
Religion and Economic Life
Psychology and Religion
Learning Religion at Home

Each course lasts six weeks; offered in sequence; no fee

## EDUCATION WORKSHOP, Loop Center Y.W.C.A., Chicago

### Spring, 1948

| MONDAY | TIME | FEE |
|---|---|---|
| Contract Bridge (Beg.) | 6:00-7:00 | $6.00 |
| Contract Bridge (Int.) | 7:15-8:45 | 7.00 |
| Creative Writing .... | 6:15-7:45 | 8.00 |
| Drawing and Painting | 6:15-8:15 | 8.00 |
| Millinery .......... | 6:15-8:15 | 9.00 |
| Sewing (Beg.) ...... | 6:15-8:15 | 7.00 |
| Speech Profile ...... | 6:15-7:15 | 7.00 |
| Vocabulary Building. | 7:15-8:15 | 7.00 |

| TUESDAY | TIME | FEE |
|---|---|---|
| Contract Bridge (Int.) | 6:15-7:45 | 7.00 |
| General Crafts ...... | 6:15-8:15 | 8.00 |
| Great Books ........ | 6:15-8:15 | |
| Millinery .......... | 4:00-6:00 | 9.00 |
| Millinery .......... | 6:15-8:15 | 9.00 |
| Psychology (Adv.) .. | 6:15-7:15 | 7.00 |
| Psychology (Adv.) .. | 7:15-8:15 | 7.00 |
| Sewing (Beg.) ...... | 4:00-6:00 | 7.00 |
| Sewing (Adv.) ...... | 7:00-9:00 | 9.00 |
| Spanish III ........ | 6:15-8:15 | 10.00 |

| WEDNESDAY | TIME | FEE |
|---|---|---|
| Choral Singing ...... | 7:15-8:45 | 3.00 |
| Dress Design & Construction .... | 6:00-9:00 | 12.00 |
| Flower Arrangement & Table Decorations | 6:15-7:15 | 5.00 |
| Group Piano ....... | 6:15-7:15 | 7.00 |
| Interior Decorating .. | 6:15-7:15 | 7.00 |
| Jewelry ............ | 6:15-8:15 | 8.00 |
| Photography (Beg.) .. | 6:00-7:45 | 8.00 |
| Photography (Beg.) .. | 8:00-9:45 | 8.00 |
| Sewing (Beg.) ...... | 6:15-8:15 | 7.00 |
| Spanish I .......... | 6:15-8:15 | 10.00 |

| THURSDAY | TIME | FEE |
|---|---|---|
| Contract Bridge (Adv.) | 6:15-7:45 | 7.00 |
| Effective Speaking ... | 6:15-7:15 | 7.00 |
| English Grammar ... | 6:00-7:30 | 6.00 |
| Gloves ............. | 6:15-7:45 | 7.00 |
| Millinery .......... | 4:00-6:00 | 9.00 |
| Millinery .......... | 6:15-8:15 | 9.00 |
| Sewing (Beg.) .... | 6:15-8:15 | 7.00 |
| Silk Screen ......... | 6:15-8:15 | 8.00 |
| Rebuild Your Vocabulary ..... | 3:00-4:00 | 5.00 |
| Vocal (Beg.) ........ | 6:15-7:15 | 8.00 |
| Vocal (Adv.) ....... | 7:15-8:15 | 8.00 |

| FRIDAY | TIME | FEE |
|---|---|---|
| Be Your Own Handyman ..... | 7:15-9:15 | 5.00 |
| How to Listen to Music .......... | 6:15-7:15 | 5.00 |
| Leather ........... | 6:15-8:15 | 8.00 |
| Millinery .......... | 4:00-6:00 | 9.00 |
| Millinery .......... | 6:15-8:15 | 9.00 |
| Photography (Int.) .. | 7:00-9:00 | 8.00 |
| Sewing (Adv.) ...... | 6:45-8:45 | 9.00 |
| Spanish II ......... | 6:15-8:15 | 10.00 |

10 weeks, April 5—June 11

## 2. IN UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

### THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, Division of Extension
### Memphis Center, Spring, 1949

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Accounting 211 (Introductory—Part I) | Wednesdays | 6:45-9:45 |
| Accounting 212 (Introductory—Part II) | Mondays | 6:45-9:45 |
| Accounting 213 (Introductory—Part III) | Thursdays | 6:45-9:45 |
| Accounting 311 (Intermediate) | Tuesdays | 6:45-9:45 |
| Accounting 312 (Intermediate) | Tuesdays | 6:45-9:45 |
| Accounting 322 (Cost—Part II) | Fridays | 6:45-9:45 |
| Advertising (Marketing 431) | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Blueprint Analysis | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Business English (Part I) | Mon. & Wed. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Business Law 413 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Economics 211 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Economics 213 | Mon. & Wed. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Elements of Electricity | Mon. & Wed. | 8:15-9:45 |
| English 111 | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-8:15 |
| English 112 | Tues. & Thur. | 8:15-9:45 |
| English 113 | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-8:15 |
| English 231 (Public Speaking) | Tues. & Thur. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Engineering Drawing 111 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-9:45 |
| Engineering Drawing 112 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-9:45 |
| Engineering Drawing 113 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-9:45 |
| Federal Estate and Gift Taxes | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-8:15 |
| History 122 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Mathematics 161 (College Algebra) | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-9:15 |
| Mathematics 162 (Trigonometry) | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-9:15 |
| Office Management (Office Administration 433) | Tues. & Thur. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Personnel Management | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Political Science 221 | Tues. & Thur. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Psychology 211 (Introductory—Part I) | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Psychology 212 (Introductory—Part II) | Tues. & Thur. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Psychology 213 (Introductory—Part III) | Mon. & Wed. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Psychology 311 (Genetic) | Mon. & Wed. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Real Estate Law | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Real Estate Principles | Mon. & Wed. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Salesmanship (Marketing 313) | Fridays | 6:45-8:15 |
| Security Analysis (Finance 413) | Tues. & Thur. | 8:15-9:45 |
| Sociology 211 | Mon. & Wed. | 6:45-8:15 |
| Spanish 113 | Tues. & Thur. | 8:15-9:45 |

11 weeks, $15 to $25 per course

### CLEVELAND COLLEGE, Western Reserve University, Cleveland
### School of General Studies, Short Courses, Fall Series, 1948

The United Nations and World Government
History of Russia
The Study of History
The Meeting of East and West
Plato's *Republic*
Patterns of Life—Anthropology
Literature of the Bible

Modern Europe in the Mirror of Literature
The Meaning of Life in the Light of Great Poets and Writers
The American Plutarch
Reading Poetry
Philosophies of the Western World
Modern Piano Music
Fundamentals of General Business
Short Review Course for Public Speakers
Daily Themes
Human Problems in Business and Industry
Basic English for Foreigners
Remedial Reading
Spanish Vocabulary Building
Spanish Conversation
Personal Inventory
Young Homemakers Guide
Crafts for Mothers and Children
In Tune With Your Age
Folk and Square Dance Lessons
Ceramics Workshop
Metal Workshop
Leather Workshop
Paint Workshop
Needlecraft
Needlecraft Workshop
Weaving
Sewing
Clothes Clinic
Tailoring for Women
Practical Farm Management

8 weeks, $8 per course

### UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, University College
### Adult Education Program, Winter, 1950

SEMINARS (NON-CREDIT)

Leadership in Conference Discussion
The World's Great Plays
The Modern Novel
Short Story Writing
The Writing of Poetry
An Introduction to Music
Case Work With the Aged
How to Read a Book
Personality and the Effective Executive
Shakespeare
Elements of Art
Group Dynamics and Adult Edcation
Great Books of the Bible
International Relations
Group and Personality Factors Behind Modern Tensions

6 to 11 sessions, $7.50 to $25 per course. University College also offers a Union Officers Program, a Basic Program of Liberal Education for Adults, Great Books in the Modern World, and a wide variety of credit courses.

## 3. IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

### BALTIMORE PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Non-credit Courses, 1949-50

ARTS AND CRAFTS

Artcraft and Painting
Art Metal Work
Blueprint Reading
Commercial Art
Electronics
Ceramics
Interior Decoration
Jewelry Making
Knitting and Crocheting
Machine Shop
Painting and Artcraft
Photography
Radio
Television
Wood Shop

HOMEMAKING

Cooking
Dressmaking and General Sewing
Home Nursing
Gardening

NON-CREDIT COURSES

Advertising
Art Appreciation
Art Techniques
Art Workshop
Chemistry
- Industrial
- Qualitative Analysis

Choral Music
Creative Writing
Current Events
Dramatics
English
- Business
- Everyday

English—Great Books
French Conversation
Handwriting
Income Taxes
Insurance
Italian, Conversation
Journalism
Modern Drama
Music Appreciation
- Piano
- Instrumental

Opera Appreciation
Orchestra
Office Machines
Piano, Class
Polish Conversation
Psychology
Public Relations
Public Speaking
Salesmanship
Shorthand
Spanish, Conversation
Typing

Free to residents of Baltimore

**DES MOINES, IOWA, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Educational Opportunities for Adults, Fall, 1948**

MONDAY MORNINGS

Arts and Crafts—See Homecrafts
Hat Making
Homecrafts

MONDAY AFTERNOONS

Bridge, Contract—Beginning
Dressmaking and Fitting Problems
Tailoring
Textile Painting, Beginning

MONDAY EVENINGS

Acetylene Welding
Advertising Lettering and Layout
Arc Welding
Architectural Drafting
Blueprint Reading
Bridge, Contract
Dancing, Ballroom
Dress Design
Electric Motors
Electronics
Family Guidance Clinic
Fiction Writing Clinic
Figurine Painting
Flower Arrangement
French, Conversational
German
Hat Making
High School Credit Course
Homecrafts
Income Tax Problems
Interior Decoration
Leathercraft—Beginning
Lip Reading
Machine Shop Practice
Office Machines
Philosophy for Everyday Living
Piano—Modern Keyboard Harmony, Beginning
Power Sewing
Printing
Public Speaking
Radio Repair and Service
Radio Speech
Refrigeration
Shorthand—Beginning
Shorthand Review
Shorthand (Thomas System)
Slip Covers and Drapes
Small Business Management
Spanish
Spanish, Conversational
Swedish, Advanced
Swimming
Tailoring

Typing—Beginning
Typing—Intermediate
Typing—Advanced
Upholstering
Woodworking and Furniture Repair

TUESDAY MORNINGS

Metalcraft
Hat Making
Slip Covers and Drapes
Special Sewing Techniques

TUESDAY AFTERNOONS

Bridge, Contract—Advanced
Dressmaking and Fitting Problems
Flower Arrangement
Hat Making
Homecrafts—Advanced
Metalcraft
Special Sewing Techniques

TUESDAY EVENINGS

Arithmetic Review
Badminton
Bridge, Contract—Beginning
Dancing
Flower Arrangement
Hat Making
Homecrafts—Beginning
Keeping Fit
Leathercraft—Beginning
Penmanship
Public Speaking
Radio Speech Workshop
Shorthand—Beginning
Shorthand Review
Slip Covers and Drapes
Spanish
Spanish—Beginning
Swimming
Transportation Classes
Typing—Beginning

WEDNESDAY MORNINGS

Hat Making
Homecrafts—Beginning
Slip Covers and Drapes

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOONS

Child Growth and Development
Figurine Painting
Hat Making
Keeping Fit
Tailoring

WEDNESDAY EVENINGS

Acetylene Welding
Advertising Copy Writing
Archery Range Practice
Arc Welding
Architectural or Machine Drafting
Blueprint Reading
Bridge, Contract
Business Law
Business Letter Writing
Business Mathematics and Penmanship
Clothing
Creative Writing—Beginning
Dancing, Ballroom
Dress Design
Electronics
English Review
Flower Arrangement
French—Beginning
Hat Making
High School Credit Course
Homecrafts
Leathercraft
Metalcraft
Machine Shop Practice
Music: Adventure in Listening
Office Machines
Power Sewing
Printing
Radio Repair and Service
Refrigeration
Shorthand—Beginning
Shorthand Review
Shorthand (Thomas System)
Slip Covers and Drapes
Spanish—Beginning
Spanish—Conversational
Swedish—Beginning
Swimming
Tailoring
Typing—Beginning
Typing—Intermediate
Upholstering
Vocabulary Building
Woodworking and Furniture Repair

THURSDAY MORNINGS

Hat Making
Homecrafts—Advanced
Homecrafts—Beginning

THURSDAY AFTERNOONS

Dressmaking and Fitting Problems
Hat Making
Homecrafts—Advanced
Tailoring

THURSDAY EVENINGS

Arithmetic Review
Basketball
Bridge (Contract) Duplicate
Clothing
Dancing
Dancing, Square
Dressmaking and Fitting Problems
English Review
Fitting and Sewing
Hat Making
Homecrafts
Keeping Fit and Basketball (Men)
Keeping Fit and Badminton (Women)
Music: Adventures in Listening (5 weeks)
Penmanship
Public Speaking
Shorthand—Beginning
Spanish—Intermediate and Advanced
Swimming
Tailoring
Typing—Beginning
Woodcraft and Furniture Repair

FRIDAY MORNINGS

Child Growth and Development
Hat Making
Homecrafts—Advanced
Special Sewing Techniques

FRIDAY AFTERNOONS

Hat Making
Homecrafts—Beginning
Keeping Fit
Slip Covers and Drapes
Special Sewing Techniques

FRIDAY EVENINGS

Hat Making
High School Credit Course
"Meet the People" Film Lecture Series
Tailoring

5 to 10 weeks, free to $8.50 per course

**THE MOTT FOUNDATION, Sponsored by the Board of Education and Co-operating Community Agencies, Flint, Michigan, Winter, 1950**

American Literature and Life II
Accounting I (Elementary)
Accounting II (College Credit)
Accounting (Pay Roll)
Badminton
Boat Building and Design
Book Review (Speaking of Books)
Braille Reading and Writing
Bridge (Advanced)
Bridge (Beginning)
Bridge (Duplicate)
Business Law I
Business Machines
Business Mathematics I
Business Mathematics II
Carpentry
Ceramics
Child Psychology (Understanding Our Children)
China Painting
Citizenship Classes
College Division
Cooking for Guests
Comptometry I
Comptometry II
Comptometry III
Comptometer Training
Correspondence
Crafts (Lessons for Leaders)
Crafts (General)
Current American Problem
Dancing (Couple)
Dancing (Social)
Dancing (Social Parties)
Dancing (Square Instruction)
Dancing (Square Parties)
Design and Color Harmony
Draperies
Dresden Craft
Dress Forms
Dressmaking (Advanced)
Dressmaking (Beginning)
Dressmaking (General)
Effective Speaking and

Personality Development
Engineering Fundamentals
Rrefresher Course
English Composition II
English (Correct)
Father and Sons in the Out-of-Doors
Filing
Fly-Tying
French (Conversational)
From Friendship to Marriage
Furniture Refinishing
Furniture Upholstering
Gift Making
Grooming (The Art and Science
of Being Attractive)
High School Credit Subjects
Home Freezers
Interior Decorating
(Beautifying the Home)
Jujitsu
Knitting
Lamp Shades
Leathercraft
Let's Give a Party
Lettering
Machine Blueprint Reading
Machine Shop Practice
Mathematics of Merchandising
Mathematics Workshop
Mental Health (Building)
Millinery (New)
Millinery (Remodeling)
Model Railroading
Music Appreciation
(Portrait of a Great Musician)
New Homemaker's Foods Class
Office Procedure
Penmanship
Photography (Advanced)
Photography (Beginning)
Physical Fitness for Women
Planning Your New Home
Plastics
Poetry
Political Science II
Psychology
Radio (Elementary)
Reading (Speeding Your)
Rugs (Handmade)
Rugs (Hooked)
Sales Psychology
Sewing (Introduction To)
Sheet Metal Drawing
Shorthand I
Shorthand II
Shorthand III
Shorthand Review and Dictation
Slide Rule Operation
Slip Covers and Draperies
Social Security Act
Sociology
Spanish Club
Spanish Conversation (Advanced)
Spanish Conversation (Intermediate)
Spanish Conversation (Invitation to)
Speech Reading (Lip Reading)
Stutterers
Swimming
Tailoring (Advanced)
Tailoring (Beginning)
Textile Painting
Typing I
Typing II
Typing III
Veterans (Opportunities for)
Water Color Painting
Whittling and Woodcarving
Woodshop Hobby Group
Woodworking
Word Study
Writer's Workshop
Writing for Pleasure and Profit

5 to 12 weeks, $1 to $10 per course

**THE CALDWELL ADULT SCHOOL, Grover Cleveland High School**
**Caldwell, New Jersey, Fall, 1949**

7:30-9:00 P.M.

The Contemporary Theatre
Psychology of Personality
An Analysis of World Affairs
Better English, Essential English,
Effective English
First Aid and Home Safety
Contract Bridge—Elementary
Social Dancing—Elementary
Charcoal, Pencil, and Crayon—

Intermediate and Advanced
Oil, Water Color, and Pastels—
Intermediate and Advanced
Flower Arrangement

7:30-10:30 P.M.

Typewriting—Elementary
Typwriting—Intermediate and Advanced
Clothing—Advanced
Basic Cooking
Rug Hooking and Braiding
Glove Making
Chess
Golf
Plastic and Metal Jewelry Making
Ceramics
Woodworking
Photography Workshop
Millinery

8:00-10:00 P.M.

A Layman Looks at Labor Laws
Bookkeeping
Conversational Spanish
Conversational French
Interior Decoration Workshop
Creative Writing Workshop
Astronomy for the Hobbyist
Making Music on the Harmonica
Planning Your New Home—Remodeling Your Old

8:00-10:30 P.M.

The World's Outstanding Films

9:00-10:30 P.M.

Our Community
The Psychology of Child Development
Profitable Public Relations
The Psychology of Human Relations
Music as a Hobby
Public Speaking
Fundamental Economics
Contract Bridge—Advanced
Social Dancing—Intermediate and Advanced
Charcoal, Pencil, and Crayon—Elementary
Oil, Water Color, and Pastels—Elementary

10 Thursday evenings, $6 to $7 per course

## 4. IN LABOR AND INDUSTRY

### INTERNATIONAL LADIES GARMENT WORKERS' UNION
**New York City Central Education Program, 1948-49**

Officers' Qualification Courses
Public Speaking
Esperanto
Film Forums
Living With Science
Music Appreciation
Songfest and Dancing
Dramatics

Year-round; free to union members

### OHIO C.I.O. COUNCIL SUMMER SCHOOL, Tar Hollow Group Camp
**Chillicothe, Ohio, September 11-17, 1949**

How to Get Results through Political Action
Psychology for Workers
How to Carry Out Collective Bargaining
How to Administer a Local Union Successfully
How to Do Expert Mimeograph Work
How to Achieve Jobs for All in America
Workmen's Compensation and Community Services
How to Publish a Good Union Paper
How to Conduct an Educational Program in Local Unions
How to Take and Develop Good Pictures

5 days, $30 for tuition, board, and room

## WESTERN ELECTRIC COMPANY, Hawthorne Club Evening School
## Cicero, Illinois, Spring, 1948

FUNDAMENTAL SUBJECTS

Practical Arithmetic Refresher
Algebra
Shop Trigonometry
Slide Rule
Mathematics of Punch and Die Design
Industrial Statistics
Practical Mathematics Refresher
Your English (Grammar & Punctuation)
Your English (Sentence & Paragraph Structure)
Fundamentals of Electricity—Beginning
Fundamentals of Electricity—Advanced
Industrial Electricity
Industrial Electronics
Effective Speaking
Introduction to Psychology—Beginning
Introduction to Psychology—Advanced
Psychology of Dealing with People
Applied Psychology
Psychology of Personality
Conversational Spanish

VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS

Shop Clerical Functions & Payroll Preparation
Bookkeeping and Elementary Accounting
Fundamentals of Western Electric Manufacturing Accounting
Fundamentals of Blueprint Reading
Advanced Blueprint Reading
Advanced Tool & Piece Part Blueprint Reading
Calculating Machines
Mechanical Drawing
Assembly and Detail Drawing
Advanced Metallurgy of Iron & Steel
Metallurgy of Non-ferrous Metals
Fundamentals of Milling Machine Operation
The Western Electric Company & Its Products
Hawthorne Manufacturing Organization & Principles
Shop Practice
Western Electric Sales Organization & Practice
Elementary Telephony
Step-by-step Dial System
Step-by-step Dial System—Advanced
Crossbar Dial Fundamentals
Crossbar Dial Traffic (Originating Equipment)
Crossbar Dial Traffic (Terminating Equipment)
Typewriting
Review Shorthand
Gregg Shorthand

LEISURE TIME AND PERSONAL INTEREST CLASSES

Reading Improvement Films
Sketching and Painting
Piano Lessons in Popular Music
Badminton Classes
Gymnasium Classes—Men
Gymnasium Classes—Women
Ballroom Dancing
Intermediate Photography
The Forum
Speech Improvement
Sewing
Advanced Sewing
Miscellaneous Needlework

13 weeks, $3.50 per course, open to all employees

## INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER COMPANY, Chicago Central School for Harvester Personnel Courses for Foremen, 1948-49

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Personal Qualities of a Foreman
Everyday Speaking
Everyday Writing
Planning and Organizing
Logical Thinking

HUMAN RELATIONS

Human Behavior
How People Learn
Union-management Relationship
How to Build a Team
Race Relations
Federal Legislation

ECONOMICS

American Competitive System
Basic Laws of Economics
Harvester's Financial Structure and Annual Report
Origin and Growth of International Harvester

COMPANY OPERATIONS

Organizational Structure of Harvester
Policy Development
Supply and Inventory
Treasury
Consumer Relations
Public Relations
Foreign Operations
Product Development
Product Distribution

For selected personnel; no fee

**LABOR EDUCATION DIVISION OF ROOSEVELT COLLEGE**
**Chicago, Schedule of Courses for Union Members, Winter, 1950**

MONDAYS, 7:00 TO 9:00 P.M.

Parliamentary Procedure
Labor Journalism Workshop

WEDNESDAYS, 7:00 TO 9:00 P.M.

Economics for Gaining a Higher Standard of Living
Time and Motion Study

8 weeks, $9 per course

In addition to the courses listed above, the Labor Education Division of Roosevelt College offers these services to local unions: (1) extension classes at union halls; (2) speakers for union meetings and forums; (3) labor film strips and movies; (4) steward's training classes specifically designed for each union; (5) special institutes on current problems; (6) help in planning local union educational programs; (7) week-end training institutes.

## 5. IN MUSEUMS

Typically, in museums of art, natural history, science and industry, and the like, the emphasis in educational program building is on tours, exhibits, and lectures. A few museums offer organized courses, a good example being the Cleveland Museum of Art.

**THE CLEVELAND MUSEUM OF ART, Clubs and Courses for Members**
**Fall, 1948**

Comparative Aesthetics: Historic Styles in Various Arts
Saturday Afternoon Sketch Club for Amateurs
Sculpture for the Amateur

Clay Modeling and Ceramics: Appreciation and Practice
The Collecting and Care of House Plants
The Painting Workshop: Exploring the Painting Mediums
Portraits and Figures in Water Color: A Painting Course for Beginners and Advanced Students
Pictorial Photography: Appreciation and Practice
Art Appreciation
Music Appreciation: Chamber Music of Brahms
Elementary Kodachrome Photography
The Dance as an Art Form
East and West: Comparisons, Contrasts, and Exchanges of Oriental and Occidental Art and Culture

6 meetings, no fee

## 6. IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Public libraries conceive their function to be primarily to serve individual readers and outside groups. A number of libraries, however, attract people to their buildings for organized classes, especially Great Books courses, and related activities.

### ENOCH PRATT FREE LIBRARY, BALTIMORE

Organized a program on "Implications of Atomic Energy" that included lectures, book lists, exhibits, and film forums.

### BROOKLYN PUBLIC LIBRARY

Sponsors discussion groups, in private homes under the leadership of a librarian, based on books of interest to participants.

### CLEVELAND PUBLIC LIBRARY

Its "Live Long and Like It Club" brings older people together for meetings every two weeks for the study of family relations, nutrition, drama, and reading. In addition, year-round discussion groups in the branch libraries are sponsored in co-operation with the Cleveland Council on World Affairs.

### LOS ANGELES PUBLIC LIBRARY

Study groups meet in the branch libraries on such subjects as Philosophic Implications of the Great Books, Modern Political Experiments and Leaders, Present-day Europe, American Problems of Today, Contributions of the Negro to American Civilization.

## 7. IN RURAL EDUCATION

Adult educational opportunities are provided in rural areas by schools, libraries, churches, the Grange, the Farm Bureau,

the Farmers Union, Community Councils, and other organizations. Organized classes are found primarily, however, in the rural high schools under co-operative arrangements with the state colleges, and in the program of the Co-operative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, which works through thousands of county agents.

Rural education programs tend strongly toward vocational subjects, but offerings in social, economic, and cultural areas are expanding. It should be emphasized that a great volume of rural education takes place on a person-to-person basis through farm visitations and demonstrations, through printed materials, and through clubs, committees, councils, and fairs. Programs are adapted to local conditions and needs. To illustrate:

**EXTENSION SERVICE PROGRAM, KANSAS STATE COLLEGE**
**(Bulletin of January, 1941)**

Soil Management and Crop Production
Plant Pathology
Horticulture
Animal Husbandry
Dairy Husbandry
Poultry Husbandry
Entomology
Farm Management
Marketing
Foods and Nutrition
Clothing
Home Health and Sanitation
Home Management
Rural Engineering
Home Furnishings
Farm Forestry
Land Use Planning
Recreation

**SAC CITY, IOWA, COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM**
**(As described in the 1948-49 Annual Report)**

Sac City was saved from the danger of "going to seed" when Glenn W. Miller arrived July 1, 1931, as the Smith-Hughes agricultural instructor. With the enthusiasm of youth, he brought a vision of developing education for all the people of the community, old and young, rural and urban. Wisely, however, he did not start by outlining a program. He set out first to get acquainted, talking with men and women in the town as well as with farmers and their wives. While seeking their opinions on business affairs, he also diplomatically asked questions to find out who were the most respected and the most forward-looking men and women. Then as the school year began, he called these key people together. This proved to be the beginning of an advisory council for adult education programs.

The Sac City Community Adult Education Council has continued to function for 19 years. During that time, there have been five changes in Smith-Hughes agricultural instructors and four changes in school superintendents. But in 1947-48, its adult education classes reached a new high point with 610 enrollees—better than one for each ten individuals in the community.

This council is composed of forty citizens, including ten farm men, ten farm women, ten town men and ten town women. The school superintendent and the vocational instructors in agriculture and homemaking are ex-officio members. The superintendent is chairman. The high school principal is enlisted to serve as treasurer and another high school teacher is paid $50.00 a year to act as recording secretary and keep attendance records for the adult classes.

This year we have 525 enrolled. One hundred thirty, or nearly one-fourth, are farmers. This group is divided into ten discussion units, each of which elects a chairman—the elections being staggered with each serving a three-year term. These ten chairmen serve as the ten farmer members on the Community Adult Education Council. They also help the agricultural instructor plan the farmer night school class program which centers around the problem "What's New in Agriculture."

For the 395 women and town men, there are 11 classes. "Home Equipment," a class for women, is taught by the vocational homemaking instructor. The other 10 classes are handled by volunteer lay teachers. Eight of these teachers come from the teaching staff of the local schools, and the other five come from the professional and business people in the community. The classes taught by these instructors are as follows: Industrial Arts, Copper Work, Child Development, Film Forum and Contemporary Affairs, Fundamentals of Salesmanship, Photography, Swimming for Women, Physical Education for Men, Typewriting and Driver Training.

All classes meet on Wednesday nights for ten successive weeks. On alternate weeks, the class periods are shortened and the members come together for a community forum session.

Early in September the community Adult Education Council holds its first meeting to consider suggestions for new night school classes, recommendations for instructors, and plans for community forums. A second meeting is held before enrollment starts and a third as the year's program gets under way. Policies are cleared in these sessions. The members of the council then help promote community-wide support for the adult education program. Their work continues through the year in the hands of an executive committee, which is composed of the superintendent, who is director of the program, principal of the high school, the two vocational instructors and chairmen of each of the four council groups (farm men, farm women, town men, and town women).

In pre-World War II days all who enrolled in the evening classes paid $1.00 enrollment fees. Now the fee is $1.50. This income is used chiefly in paying for forum talent and occasional out-of-town speakers for the evening classes. Since the high school provides meeting facilities and administrative leadership with the local instructors contributing their work as community service, the entire program can be operated on a very small budget.

## Clubs and Groups

### 1. OVER-ALL AGENCY CLUB AND GROUP PROGRAMS

Many leisure-time agencies provide a balanced program of year-round clubs and groups from which participants may choose in much the same way they choose courses.

## YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF DAYTON, OHIO

Friday Nite Dance Club
Saturday Nite Party
Outdoor Club
Married Couples Club
"Y" Camera Club
Archery Group
Bridge Club
Table Tennis Club
"Y" Players
Symphonic Hour
Mixed Chorus
Glee Club
"Y" Writers
Toastmasters Club
Book-Nite at the "Y"
Amateur Movie Club

## OAKTON UNITED CHURCH, EVANSTON, ILLINOIS

SUNDAY EVENING ADULT FELLOWSHIP

Series of semi-monthly programs of recreation, discussion and fellowship (refreshments). Members take turns hosting.

1. Building a Mature Philosophy of Sex—5 sessions:
   a. Film, *Human Reproduction,* and guest resource leader for discussion
   b. Lecture by guest speaker, followed by discussion
   c. Review Kinsey Report, discussion, questionnaire
   d. Questionnaire, Definitions of Love, discussion
   e. Film, *Overdependency,* discussion, conclusions

2. Family Budgeting of Money and Leisure Time—6 sessions:
   a. Film, "For Some Must Watch," discussion
   b. Sound film-strip, *Two Dollars,* discussion
   c. Film, *Your Family Budget,* discussion, individual buudget planning
   d. Pamphlet, *Spending for Family Happiness,* discussion
   e. Questionnaire, Creative Use of Leisure Time, discussion
   f. Film, *Leaders for Leisure,* discussion, individual leisure-time schedules

COMMUNITY SQUARE DANCES

Held semi-monthly, with instruction for beginners and callers. Six callers developed from group.

WOMEN'S GUILD

Monthly program meetings—half are lectures by guest speakers, half are film forums, panel discussions or debates by members. Themes of programs coincide with monthly theme of general church program, e.g., Faith for Today, Faith in the Worth of Persons, Faith in the Dependability of the Universe, Faith in the Power of Love.
Monthly sewing meetings. Projects include bazaar items and box work for Church World Service and two denominational agencies.
Annual beefsteak dinner and bazaar.
Annual rummage sale.
Interchurch program of participation.

MEN'S CLUB

Monthly program meetings concentrating on fun and fellowship.
Weekly bowling meets.
Projects such as maintenance of church lot.

## 2. SPECIFIC CLUB AND GROUP PROGRAMS

### PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION OF OAK PARK, ILLINOIS

**Outline for a two-year program conducted in co-operation with the Association for Family Living of Chicago, 1949-51**

FIRST YEAR

Family Life Is What You Make It
Relationships Within the Family
Stepping Beyond the Family Circle
Schools and Families

SECOND YEAR

Learning to Take Responsibility
Learning to Handle Money
Leisure-time Activities that Make for Self-Reliance
Summer Opportunities that Foster Growth and Happiness

### LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS OF EVANSTON, ILLINOIS

**1949-50 program**

Sept.-Oct. LOCAL AFFAIRS SEQUENCE

1. Morning Lecture: Evanston and the New Housing Law
   Luncheon Speaker: Evanston's Future—Our Responsibility
2. Neighborhood discussions groups (9)
   A Good Look at Our Own Neighborhood
3. Evening Group: Lecture, The Evanston Tax Dollar and Public Library Support
4. Study Group: Reports of neighborhood meetings, summary of sequence
5. Radio program: A Quiet Safe Neighborhood (drama)

Oct.-Nov. FOREIGN AFFAIRS SEQUENCE

1. Lecture: Are We Wrong About the World?
   Luncheon Speaker: China—A Problem and a Promise
2. Discussion Groups: The Development of Backward Areas
3. Evening Group: Lecture, The Development of Backward Areas
4. Study Group: Summary, Four-point Program
5. Radio Program: Silver-plated Pound (round table)

Nov.-Dec. SOCIAL WELFARE SEQUENCE

1. Lecture: State Welfare Problems
   Luncheon Speaker: Community Planning for Mental Health
2. Discussion Groups: Welfare Services, More or Less?
3. Evening Group: Lecture, Public Welfare
4. Study Group: Guest resource discussion leader, Special Services for Evanston Children; summary
5. Radio Program: Mental Health (interview)

Out of Sequence Meeting: Reports from committees in round-table form, Committees in Action

Jan.-Feb. EDUCATION SEQUENCE

1. Lecture: How Good Is Our High School?
   Luncheon Speaker: Should Our Community College Be Tuition-free?
2. Discussion Groups: Those Vital Dollars! Do They Bring Our Children the Best?
3. Study Group: Debate, Should the Federal Government Aid Education?; summary
4. Radio Program: What Is the Community College (interview)

Feb.-Mar. ECONOMIC WELFARE SEQUENCE

1. Debate: Brannan Plan
   Luncheon Speaker: Department of Agriculture
2. Discussion Groups: Taxation
3. Study Group: Panel—International Trade
4. Special Meeting: Conservation of Illinois River
5. Radio Program: Conservation of Natural Resources

April-May NOT A SEQUENCE

1. Discussion: Proposed National Agenda
2. Discussion: Proposed Local Agenda
3. Voters Service Activities, Preparing for Primaries
4. Radio Program: Quiz Whiz for Voters
5. Lecture: Report on Congress
6. Study Group: Report on National Convention
7. Annual Meeting. Speakers: local officials

## WORLD REPUBLIC, INC., CHICAGO

**A Seminar on World Government, a series of eight lectures followed by discussion in small groups, April 7 through May 26, 1949**

Why We Need World Government
The United Nations and World Government
A Historical Quest: World Government
Are There Alternatives to World Government?
Russia and World Government
Criticisms of World Government
Roads to World Government—Popular Action
Roads to World Government—Governmental Action

## EVANSTON UNITARIAN CHURCH, EVANSTON, ILLINOIS
## WORLD GOVERNMENT: WHY AND HOW?

**A Social Action Project, Spring, 1949**

*A three-week intensive adult education program for members and friends of the Church*

SUNDAY, MARCH 13:

10:50 a.m. Sermon by Dr. Homer A. Jack on the topic, World Government—Or Else!

12:00 noon. International Dinner prepared by members of the church

1:00 p.m. "Talk Back" Session, during which those who heard Dr. Jack's sermon have an opportunity to talk back to the minister and generally begin to discuss the whole problem of world government

SUNDAY, MARCH 20:

10:00 a.m. Pathways to World Government, a round-table discussion by four laymen in the church

MONDAY, WEDNESDAY, AND FRIDAY, MARCH 21, 23, AND 25:

Neighborhood Discussion Groups: three informal discussion groups held at the homes of church families in geographically separated sections of the community

SUNDAY, MARCH 27:

8:00 p.m. How Can We Attain World Government? A special evening forum, presenting professional proponents of United Nations, Union Now, United World Federalists, and World Republic

FRIDAY, APRIL 1:

8:00 p.m. Open meeting of the Adult Education and Social Action of the church. Results of the project summarized and evaluated. Final action: (1) a resolution to the congregation urging individuals to join the world government organizations representing their points of view, and (2) formation of an Evanston Chapter of the United World Federalists which meets in the church

## Forums and Lecture Series

### TOWN HALL, INC., NEW YORK CITY, 1946-47

FACING YEAR II OF THE ATOMIC AGE—
IN NATIONAL AND WORLD AFFAIRS

H. V. Kaltenborn: We Look at the World
Harold Stassen: National Affairs in This Atomic Age
Randolph Churchill: Europe Today
Sir Alexander Cadogan: Problems of the United Nations
Fulton Lewis, Jr.: Democracy With a Gun in Her Ribs
Walter Reuther: The Role of a Labor Leader Today
Louis Fischer: America's New Role
Andre Michalopoulos: The Great Democracies and the Smaller Nations
Frances Perkins: The Destiny of Labor
Henry J. Taylor: The Survival of Free Enterprise
Dr. Gerald Wendt: How Science Is Remaking Our Lives
Harry Conover: Style and Beauty
Julien Bryan: Europe Rebuilds (illustrated)
Adelaide Stedman: Current Reactions to Current Events
Dorothy Thompson: Our World Today
Maurice Hindus: What About Russia?

Wednesdays, 11 A.M., $10 and up per series
(Town Hall also has Monday and Saturday morning series)

### DES MOINES PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Meet the People of This One World

**A film-lecture series**

Charles Allmon: Of Shores and Sails in the South Seas
Lt. Col. John Craig: Hispaniola

Frederick Machetanz: Seegooruk
Clifford Kamen: Pageant of Peru
Com. Donald B. MacMillan: Polar Regions
Cornelius Vanderbilt, Jr.: Europe Today
Mrs. Induk Pahk: Korea Today
Herbert Knapp: Travel Trails of the Andes

$4.00 for the series

**CENTRAL Y.M.C.A., CHICAGO, The Town Meeting of the Loop**
**Winter, 1948**

WHAT CAN WHITE COLLAR WORKERS DO ABOUT . . .

Finding a Place in Today's Changing World—Norman Thomas
Housing for Everyone—James S. Downs, Jr. vs. Alderman Robert E. Merriam
The Cost of Living—Maynard Kreuger vs. William W. Tongue
Ending Racial Tensions—Horace R. Cayton: If I Were a White Man
—James Luther Adams: If I Were a Negro
Education for Real Living—Lynn A. Williams, Jr.: The Kind of Education
—Stephen M. Corey: The Means and Methods
Making Marriage Work—Judge John Sbarbaro
Constructive Use of Atomic Energy—Donald J. Hughes
Making Their Opinions Count—Jerry Voorhis and Panel of Forum Members

2nd and 4th Wednesday evenings, 7:30 P.M.
Discussion groups on alternate Wednesdays

$4.17 for the series

**THE EVANSTON FIRESIDE FORUM, Evanston, Illinois**
**Unitarian Church, second series, January-February, 1950**

LIVING TOGETHER

Irving Pflaum: Human Relations Behind the Iron Curtain
Dr. Freda S. Kehm: Family Living
Saul Alinsky: Building Better Communities
Sunder Joshi: Religious Teachings About Human Relations

**BURBANK, CALIFORNIA, CITY SCHOOLS, Fall, 1947**

BURBANK EVENING FORUM

HIGH SCHOOL AUDITORIUM, 7:30-9:30 P.M.

*A Series of Public Addresses on Vital Topics by Prominent Speakers*

September 29—Bernard J. Hyink. Subject: Will Labor and Management Agree?
October 13—Kent Roberts. Subject: Behind the World Headlines
November 10—Harold H. Story. Subject: New Patterns in Global Strategy
November 24—Lal Chand Mehra. Subject: India Today and Tomorrow
January 12, 1948—Lewis Browne. Subject: Can Democracy Triumph?
February 16—Kurt Singer. Subject: Who Are the Communists in America?
March 22—Alonzo Baker. Subject: The Threat of Communism
April 19—Sheldon Shephard. Subject: Conspiracy against the Pacific Coast
May 3—John Kenfield Morley. Subject: Can We Prevent a Third World War?

**UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, University College**
**Adult Education Program, Winter, 1950**

LECTURE SERIES

Planning for Later Life
Writing and Its Consequences
New Directions in Education
Music for Orchestra
The Great Ideas
Men Who Shape Our Times
Are You Telling Them?
America in Midcentury
Illustrated Lecture—Conferences on Art

$3 to $6 per series

## Conferences

### NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION, 1949, ANNUAL CONFERENCE CLEVELAND, OHIO

TENTATIVE PROGRAM

MONDAY, OCTOBER 24

9:00 a.m. Opening Session (What this conference means)
10:30 a.m. Committee Meetings: Veterans Education, Teacher Training, Research, Speech Association
Occupational Group Meetings
2:30 p.m. Committee and Occupational Groups (continued)
6:00 p.m. Dinner meeting celebrating 100th anniversary of Cleveland's adult education program

TUESDAY, OCTOBER 25

9:00 a.m. General Session: Reports from preceding day's group meetings
9:30 a.m. Group Meetings. Theme: Building Adult Education in the Community
Five problem areas to be discussed; one group to spend two full conference periods on any one of the four areas
12:00 n. Luncheons: Committees and occupational groups
2:30 p.m. I. Study groups in basic group processes
II. Demonstrations of group participation techniques
III. Meeting of city directors
7:30 p.m. What's Ahead in Adult Education. Reports from the Joint Commission for the Study of Adult Education and the U. S. delegation to the UNESCO International Conference

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 26

9:00 a.m. General Session: Reports from preceding day's group meetings
9:30 a.m. Group Meetings (continued)
12:00 a.m. Luncheons: Committees and occupational groups
2:30 p.m. I. Study Groups (continued)
II. Demonstrations (continued)
III. Meeting of City Directors (continued)
7:30 p.m. Annual Meeting

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 27

9:00 a.m. Clinic on Conference Planning. Delegates to the Annual Conference invited

## ROOSEVELT COLLEGE, LABOR EDUCATION DIVISION CHICAGO

### One-day Institute on Politics and Politicking, co-sponsored by Labor's League for Political Education (AFL) and the Political Action Committee (CIO), Saturday, December 17, 1949

POLITICS AND POLITICKING

*Organized Labor During and Between Elections*

Gold Room, Congress Hotel
Congress and Michigan

Saturday, December 17
9:00 a.m.—5:30 p.m.

PROGRAM

9:00 a.m. Registration

9:30 a.m. Welcome by Frank McCallister

9:35 a.m. WHAT IS LABOR'S POLITICAL INFLUENCE?
On Legislation: Daniel D. Carmell, John Edelman
On Voters: Gordon M. Connelly
Chairman: P. L. Siemiller

12:30 p.m. Luncheon
HOW DOES A LEGISLATOR MAKE UP HIS MIND?
Washington: Frank W. McCulloch
Springfield: Harvey Pearson
Chicago: Archibald J. Carey, Jr.
Chairman: Nicholas M. DiPietro

3:00 p.m. HOW IS LABOR ORGANIZING AND EDUCATING FOR THE 1950 ELECTIONS?
LLPE-AFL: Joseph D. Keenan
PAC-CIO: Tilford E. Dudley
Discussants: John Alesia, James Kennedy
Chairman: George M. Watson

*Discussion and questions after each session.*

## ADULT EDUCATION COUNCIL OF GREATER CHICAGO

### Practitioner's Conference and Annual Meeting, May 19, 1948

THE PROGRAM

OPENING SESSION

10:00 a.m. Auditorium
A brief résumé of the findings of the previous conference; what this conference will try to do and how it will do it

WORK GROUPS

10:30 a.m. Rooms to be announced

1. HOW TO MAKE THE ADULT EDUCATION COUNCIL MORE EFFECTIVE
(Each member agency to have one representative present; others invited)
Resource: Clifford Manshardt, President, Adult Education Council
Leader: Cyril O. Houle, Dean, University College, University of Chicago

2. BUILDING EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS—A Clinic
(How to determine needs, interests, and goals of people, as aids to developing programs)
Leader: Glenford Lawrence, Educational Director, Chicago Commons
Case Studies:
Rev. Edward V. Cardinal, Director, Sheil School of Social Studies
William H. Brueckner, Chicago Commons
Virginia Carrier, Metropolitan Program Director, Y.W.C.A. "Y"-Teen Department

3. PROMOTING YOUR PROGRAM—A Clinic
(How to get them out)
Resource: Warren E. Thompson, Public Relations Director, Y.M.C.A. of Chicago
Leader: Henry Sistrunk, Assistant General Secretary, Y.M.C.A. of Chicago
Case Studies:
Mildred Bruder, Public Library
Ruth Farwell, Great Books Foundation
Malcolm S. Knowles, Central Y.M.C.A.

4. THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEADERSHIP
(Some new developments)
Resource: Herbert A. Thelen, Assistant Prof. of Education, University of Chicago
Leader: Mrs. Arthur Wilkinson, Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers

5. MAKING BETTER USE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES—A Clinic
(How to organize community effort)
Resource: Howard Keeler, Council of Social Agencies
Leader: Wallace Heistad, Olivet Institute
Case Studies:
Frayser Lane, Urban League
Catherine Evans, United Home Finding Service

LUNCHEON SESSION

12:10 p.m. Auditorium
Election of Officers
Annual Report of the President
We Look to the Future—report by Mr. Houle of findings of the group on How to Make the Council More Effective, followed by a panel discussion by the work-group leaders, and discussion from the floor

## CHAUTAUQUA, Seventy-fifth Annual Assembly, Chautauqua, New York July-August, 1948, two typical days' program

MONDAY, JULY 5—OPENING SUMMER SCHOOLS

8:30 Monday-Friday. *The Christian Home.* Mrs. Elmer W. K. Mould, Department of Religion
9:30 Devotional Hour. Dr. Baillie
10:45 Lecture Series. *Dynamic Democracy.* 1. *Democracy Is a State of Mind.* T. V. Smith, Professor of Philosophy, University of Chicago
2:00 Concert. VFW Military Band, Girard, Ohio. Donald W. Hurrelbrink, Director
2:30 Address. To be announced

3:00 Monday-Friday. *Jesus and His Teachings.* Rev. Charles H. Hagadorn, Department of Religion

4:00 Concert on Lake Front. VFW Military Band, Girard, Ohio

4:30 Monday-Friday. *Audio-visual Aids Demonstration.* Dr. Alexander Ferguson, Department of Religion

5:15 Ministers' Club

7:15 Monday-Friday. *New Tools for Religious Education.* Dr. Alexander Ferguson, Department of Religion

8:30 Concert. The American Male Chorus. Lewis Bullock, Director

TUESDAY, JULY 6

9:30 Devotional Hour. Dr. Baillie

10:45 Lecture Series. 2. *Democracy Is Patience.* T. V. Smith

2:00 Contemporary Trends. *The Best of the Year's Non-fiction.* 1. *The Screwtape Letters* by C. S. Lewis, and *The Story of an Itinerant Teacher* by Griggs. Prof. Charles E. Rhodes

3:15 Chautauqua Bird and Tree Garden Club. Mrs. Gustave A. Doeright, President. *Johnny Appleseed.* Miss Mabel Powers

8:30 Illustrated Lecture. *Beyond Our Own.* Mr. Alexander B. Ferguson, New York City

In scanning this cross section of programs of informal adult education one is impressed by both the common core of needs and interests across the country and the subtle differences that crop up among communities and among organizations within a community. Not all of the programs depicted in this chapter have been equally successful. Taken as a whole, however, they exemplify the scope, depth, and vitality of the adult education movement in this country.

*PART THREE*

# The Administration of Adult Education

# 8

# PLANNING AND ORGANIZING

IN THIS CHAPTER we shall examine the principles of planning and organizing that should be observed at all levels in meeting the day-to-day problems of program development and management.

## A Democratic Philosophy

The foundation of good organization, if by organization is meant a structure through which people work together, is a democratic philosophy. A democratic philosophy is characterized by a concern for the development of persons, a deep conviction as to the worth of every individual, and faith in the ability of groups of people to reach wise decisions. It puts *people* ahead of *things*. When applied to the organization of adult education, a democratic philosophy means that the program will be based on the real needs and interests of the participants. It means that policies will be determined by a group that is representative of the participants. It means that there will be a maximum of participation by all members of the organization, that there will be co-operative sharing of the responsibility.

In a truly democratic organization there is a spirit of freedom, teamwork, and willingness to accept responsibility voluntarily, rather than paternalism, regimentation, and authoritarian direction.

## The Directing Committee

Sound organization calls first for a directing committee. In a social agency the directing committee may take the form of a program committee. In a formal school it may be a citizens' advisory committee. In a club, it may be a program committee, an educational committee, or a forum committee. This committee should be authorized and commissioned by the top organizational authority (board of directors, governing board, or whatever).

### FUNCTIONS OF A COMMITTEE

Ordway Tead describes committees as "a tool of the democratic, knowledge-pooling, and desire-harmonizing process which cannot be otherwise forwarded."[1] Committees are indispensable for doing certain kinds of things. They bring together people with different points of view and enable them to reach agreements. They are the means of integrating a larger group of people into a unified whole. Committees are an instrument for creative thinking. A group of people will create new ideas much more effectively than individuals working separately. They are a source of contact with groups and individuals in the community who can help to further the program. Finally, committees are a labor supply. Individual committee members can often perform specific services—such as counseling, money-raising, certain administrative work, and publicity. The function of the directing committee is to set broad, general policies to govern the operation of the program.

### COMPOSITION OF A COMMITTEE

Most membership organizations, such as women's clubs, men's clubs, and church groups, have committees that are composed entirely of members of the organization. Committee members may be appointed by the president of the organization or by the chairman of the committee, or they may be elected by ballot. In any case, the committee should include representatives of the various points of view, special interests, and friendship circles

[1] Ordway Tead, *Creative Management* (New York: The Woman's Press, 1935), p. 89.

(or cliques) within the membership. It is frequently found advisable, when the directing committee is composed entirely of organization members, to have an advisory committee containing representatives of the larger community and skilled experts.

Institutional committees, on the other hand, such as those found in the schools, social agencies, and governmental organizations, usually attempt to include representation from a broad scope of community interests. In general, it is wise for such committees to include the following three types of representation:

1. The various points of view and interests within the participating membership of the organization itself
2. The points of view, interests, and types of experience in the community at large that are significant in terms of a particular program or institution (such as business, labor, racial and nationality groups, churches, etc.)
3. Experts with specialized skills or knowledge that are needed in program planning (such as librarians, physicians, artists, scientists, audio-visual aid experts, professional educators, etc.)

It would be a mistake, however, to form a committee purely on the basis of representation. Care must be taken to select individuals who not only represent something, but who will be effective. Personal qualities to keep in mind in selecting committee members are:

1. Interest in the program and its objectives
2. Willingness to serve
3. Competence or educability for the work of the committee
4. Availability for the work, in terms of time, health, strength, and convenience of location
5. Ability to work with the other members of the committee

### FRAMING A COMMISSION

The objectives, functions, and authority of the directing committee should be clearly understood by everyone concerned. It is good practice for the board which creates the committee to issue a written commission that can be given to the committee members as they are appointed. To illustrate the forms these

commissions might take, two samples are given, the first for an institutional program and the second for a membership-organization program.

EXHIBIT 11

## COMMISSION TO THE ADULT EDUCATION COMMITTEE OF THE MIDDLEBURG COMMUNITY CENTER

I. *Purpose.* The Adult Education Committee is created as a standing committee of the Board of Directors with responsibility to the Board for the development and operation of a program of services and activities for men and women, such as informal classes, clubs, forums, institutes, exhibits, and publications.

II. *Functions.* The Adult Education Committee is responsible to the Board for the establishment of policies governing the adult education program, and for reviewing and evaluating the execution of those policies. Through its chairman it will report at each regular meeting of the Board of Directors concerning the work for which it is responsible.

III. *Membership.* The Adult Education Committee shall consist of a chairman who is a member of the Board of Directors and who is appointed by the chairman of the Board, and not more than twenty-five other members, to be appointed by the chairman of the Adult Education Committee in consultation with the staff. In general, members of the Committee will be drawn from such representative groups, fields of experience, and points of view as the following:

| | |
|---|---|
| Participants in the program | Racial and nationality groups |
| Public relations | International affairs |
| Libraries and museums | Science |
| Psychology and medicine | Audio-visual aids |
| Forums | Press and radio |
| Civic organizations | Churches |
| Industrial training | Labor |
| Business | Law |
| The arts | Literature |
| Education | Recreation |
| Social service | Government |

IV. *Staff Relationships and Functions.* The Director of Adult Education is responsible to the Committee for the execution of its policies and the administration of the Adult Education Department. He will serve as the secretary of the Committee and will record and file its minutes. He shall exercise direct supervision over other employed members of the Adult Education Department staff.

Specifically, the staff shall be responsible to the Committee for the following functions, within the policies established by the Committee and subject to review by it:

The formulation and supervision of group and class programs
Budgeting and financial control
Employment, training, supervision, and discharge of instructors and leaders
Planning and execution of promotion campaigns
Office management and procedures
Staff work for the Committee

EXHIBIT 12

### COMMISSION TO THE PROGRAM COMMITTEE OF THE MIDDLEBURG WOMEN'S CLUB

I. *Purpose.* The Program Committee is created as a standing committee of the Governing Board with responsibility for planning, promoting, and conducting monthly meetings for the education and entertainment of our members.

II. *Functions.* The Program Committee will submit a general plan for the year in September for the approval of the General Board. Upon such approval, it will proceed to secure the services of necessary speakers and entertainers within the financial limitations agreed upon with the Board, to make necessary arrangements for meeting rooms, meals, etc., and to promote the program among our members. It will submit a written report on its activities in May. The program year will run from October to May.

III. *Membership.* The Program Committee shall be composed of twelve members elected by secret ballot at the annual meeting. The Committee will elect its own chairman.

IV. *Subcommittees.* The Program Committee is authorized to appoint an advisory committee consisting of representatives of the community and experts with specialized skills, and any other subcommittees necessary to the furtherance of its work.

## HOW TO GET A COMMITTEE TO WORK

"When committees fail," according to Ordway Tead, "it is because the limits to their role are not clearly understood or because they have not benefited by proper leadership from the chairman."[2] We have already seen how the role of the committee can be defined. But what is meant by proper leadership?

Probably the most vital element in proper leadership is the underlying attitude of the leader—and through him, of the group—toward the locus of responsibility. When a leader feels that he, personally, is responsible for the success of the com-

[2] *Ibid.*

mittee, that in effect it is *his* committee, the inevitable effect is to reduce the feeling of responsibility of the other members of the group. A good leader will consistently throw back to the group all responsibilities which properly belong to the committee as a whole. He will avoid making decisions they should make, or doing their thinking for them. Those committees that have developed a high sense of group responsibility invariably are the most productive.

The principles and techniques of group-centered leadership described in Chapter 4 provide the means whereby committees can be made to function efficiently. There are several other guiding principles that apply specifically to committee operation:

1. A committee should understand clearly what it is to do and what its powers are. A commission or specification should be prepared in writing for the committee, stating its objectives, functions, and authority.

2. The committee should concern itself with real problems. It should not be put in the position of merely giving its approval to policies that have already been put into effect. The agenda for each meeting should be based on the problems the committee considers important. An agenda that is developed from a problem census of the committee will receive more responsible consideration than one that is prepared in advance by the chairman or staff member. (The problems that are of concern to the chairman and the staff will, of course, be included in the problem census.)

3. The outcomes of the committee's work should be continually interpreted to it. Activity leaders may be invited to committee meetings to describe outstanding achievements, exhibits may be arranged, and reports may be presented. It is important for the committee to realize the significance of its work.

4. Committee members should be given firsthand experiences with the program, by appearing at ceremonial events, inspecting activities, and otherwise taking an active part in the program.

5. The administrative work involved in efficient committee operation should be handled smoothly. Notices of meetings should be sent well in advance, materials of value in preparing for discussion should be distributed, minutes should be reproduced and distributed, and appropriate action should be taken on decisions made by the committee.

6. The committee should evaluate its work periodically.

7. Responsibilities accepted by committee members should be clear, specific, and definite. Provision should be made by the committee for some method of following up on committee assignments.

It is on the last point, the acceptance and follow-up of assignments, that committees often run aground. A simple device that helps the committee to keep track of responsibilities is the Responsibility Check List illustrated in Exhibit 13. The group

EXHIBIT 13

**RESPONSIBILITY CHECK LIST**

Group: *Program Committee* Chairman: *Mrs. H. H. Smith*
Follow-up: *Mr. Davis*

| JOB SPECIFICATIONS (ITEMIZE RESPONSIBILITIES) | PERSON RESPONSIBLE | DATE SET FOR COMPLETION | DATE COMPLETED |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Meeting of Oct. 29 | | | |
| Write speaker | Mrs. Jones | Sept. 15 | Sept. 15 |
| Meet speaker at train | Mrs. Jones | Oct. 29 | Oct. 29 |
| Introduce speaker and preside at question period | Mrs. Jones | Oct. 29 | Oct. 29 |
| Reserve meeting room | Mrs. Arden | Sept. 15 | Sept. 15 |
| Arrange chairs, blackboard, etc. | Mrs. Arden | Oct. 29 | Oct. 29 |
| Order refreshments | Mrs. Doolittle | Oct. 19 | Oct. 20 |
| Serve refreshments | Mrs. Doolittle, Mrs. Mansfield | Oct. 29 | Oct. 29 |
| Write letter of thanks to speaker | Mrs. Jones | Oct. 30 | Nov. 2 |
| 2. Meeting of Nov. 27 | | | |
| Survey club for entertainment talent | Mrs. DeWitt, Mr. Todd, Mrs. Dunn, Mr. Smith | Oct. 20 | Oct. 25 |
| Schedule entertainers | Same | Nov. 5 | Nov. 5 |
| Make room arrangements | Mr. Duncan | Nov. 15 | Nov. 15 |
| Assemble properties | Mrs. Dunn | Nov. 15 | Nov. 15 |
| Prepare ballots for election of officers | Mrs. Broadstreet | Nov. 25 | Nov. 25 |
| Act as Master of Ceremonies | Mr. Todd | Nov. 27 | Nov. 27 |
| Preside at election | Mr. Tripp | Nov. 27 | Nov. 27 |
| Write letters of thanks to entertainers | Mrs. DeWitt | Nov. 28 | Nov. 28 |

can agree that each member should keep such a sheet for himself and that one member be designated to check with each person having an assignment on the date set for completion.

### THE PROBLEM OF THE INHERITED COMMITTEE

A program director or chairman does not always start from the beginning. He is often "given" a committee—or the residue of a committee—that has been in existence for some time. It may have been operating without a written commission, and it may not be representative. What can be done in a situation of this kind, especially if the committee seems to resist change?

The answer is simply that one of the best educational opportunities is to be found in committee work. Let the program director and the committee chairman look upon the committee process as an educational process. For instance, if the need for a statement of functions and operating procedures is discussed openly with a committee, the chances are that the members will see its importance and vote it through of their own accord. Even the matter of changing the composition of the committee, when approached in terms of the need for broader representation of interests or skills in order to increase the committee's effectiveness, need not arouse resistance.

An inherited committee can and should be an invaluable nucleus of veteran workers who are anxious to increase their own effectiveness and importance.

## Determining Needs and Interests

What services and activities are most needed in this organization and community? What are other organizations doing that should not be duplicated? Who are the people to be served? Getting answers to these questions is one of the early tasks of a program director and directing committee in preparation for building a program. For without knowing the facts about the needs of the community and the interests of people, sound planning is not possible.

### KNOWING THE COMMUNITY

The first step is to know the field in which the work will be

done. Its boundaries will be determined by the peculiar circumstances of the job. In some cases it may be a single organization (such as a prison); in others, a neighborhood; in others, an entire city. In any case, if one is to serve his community effectively, he must know it intimately—its geographical, sociological, political, and economic characteristics. He must know what other services are available and what needs are not being satisfied. Above all, he must know the habits of the human beings with whom he will be working—what hours they work, when they eat, what they do in their free time.

How can a leader get to know his community? A study of facts that are given in Census reports, Chamber of Commerce folders, and the newspapers will give him a good background. The most systematic way to obtain specific information is to make an informal survey through interviewing the leaders of the community. Such a survey has a dual outcome: not only does one get the facts he needs, but he becomes acquainted with the community leaders and they get to know him and his program. Furthermore, by consulting them before starting his program he is bringing them into the planning process, making them participants, giving them a stake in the success of the program.

Whom should one see? What are the best sources of information? Before starting on his survey, one should list such community leaders as newspaper editors, governmental officials, church leaders, social agency directors, business executives, labor leaders, minority group spokesmen, civic leaders, educators, and other people who have standing in the community. The list should be limited to the number he will have time to see, keeping in mind that many of these people will suggest other key people. Then a schedule of appointments should be made.

What kinds of information should be obtained? Essentially, one is looking for three types of information related to adult education: (1) What is being done now? (2) What are the important unsatisfied needs? and (3) For which of these unsatisfied needs should plans be made? An interview schedule, listing

the questions to be asked and leaving space for answers, will facilitate the interviews. Exhibit 14 is an example of such a schedule.

EXHIBIT 14

COMMUNITY SURVEY FORM

1. Organization: Middleburg High School
Address 600 Main St. Tel: MID 5000

2. Person interviewed: H. H. Smith
Title Principal

3. Nature of program: Informal classes 5 nights a week, two semesters a year, Sept. to June.

4. Specific offerings: Americanization, regular high school subjects, homemaking, woodworking, sheet metal work, automobile repair.

5. Facilities: Use regular high school class rooms and workshops.

6. Number and types of clientele: Last semester there were 475 men and women, about half of them working for a diploma, other half graduates.

7. Clients' fee policy: $5 deposit, refunded if they attend 75% of meetings. Charge for materials.

8. Instructors' fee policy: $2.85 to $4.00 per hour, depending on length of service.

9. Estimate of unmet community needs: Marriage, parent education, vocational guidance, leisure time skills, civic action skills.

10. Suggestions for the Community Center: Emphasis should be on recreational skills and family living.

11. Remarks:

Other people who would be helpful: Rabbi Levi of Temple Israel, Father Walsh of C.Y.O.

Mr. Smith would be interested in teaching a course on child psychology for parents.

Information obtained from such a survey will be very helpful in determining the objectives and content of the program.

## DETERMINING INTERESTS

No program will succeed that is not interesting to the people it is meant to help. How can one know in advance what will interest people? There are several methods.

*Informal research into the interests they are already expressing.* What books are they reading (ask the librarian)? What subjects are proving to be most popular at other forums, club meetings, and organized classes? What topics are appearing most frequently on serious radio programs? What are the newspapers and magazines emphasizing? What are people talking about in casual conversation?

*Psychological study.* The reports of research in human behavior, such as can be found in psychological journals and books, will often suggest deeper interests than those that are publicly expressed. For instance, it is well known that marriage is a topic of general interest, but the reports of Dr. Kinsey indicate that there is a wide variation in the specific aspects of the problem that are interesting to different socio-economic groups.

*Ask people what they want.* A word of caution, though—don't take their responses too literally. Often a person will say what he believes would be good for other people rather than what is a burning desire of his own, or he may say what he thinks will please the questioner. With this reservation, however, the expressed interests of the people are an important source of information. There are several ways of obtaining this information: One can ask people individually during interviews or office contacts; bring up the question at group and committee meetings; or distribute an interest questionnaire.

The interest questionnaire is an easily administered method of obtaining direct expressions of interest, but one that requires considerable care. It must be easily understood, brief, simple to fill out, broad in scope and yet specific, capable of quick tabulation, and should reach degrees of interest, from "lukewarm" to "hot." The sample questionnaires shown in Exhibits 15 and 16 were framed with these specifications in mind and produced very satisfactory results in enrollments.

EXHIBIT 15

## INTEREST QUESTIONNAIRE

### INFORMATION, PLEASE!

We Need Your Advice. The Community Center has decided that one of the important new services it can offer to its members, and others, is a streamlined program of informal adult education. We want to offer those subjects which you—and people like you—will want to take. Will you let us know your desires, by checking the blanks below (check the column that most nearly reflects the way you feel). Then, will you place this sheet in the postage-paid envelope enclosed and mail it right back to us? Thanks.

| | GOOD IDEA | AM INTERESTED | WOULD ENROLL |
|---|---|---|---|
| **BUSINESS** | | | |
| 1. Principles of Real Estate | | | |
| 2. Salesmanship | | | |
| 3. Starting a Business of Your Own | | | |
| 4. Insurance (specify type) | | | |
| 5. Psychology in Business | | | |
| 6. Principles of Accounting | | | |
| 7. Other: | | | |
| **PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT** | | | |
| 8. Public Speaking | | | |
| 9. Sex and Marriage | | | |
| 10. Psychology and Personality | | | |
| 11. Getting Along With Others | | | |
| 12. The Science of Health | | | |
| 13. Other: | | | |
| **HOBBIES AND LEISURE-TIME LIVING** | | | |
| 14. Photography for Amateurs | | | |
| 15. Home Movies | | | |
| 16. Stamp and Coin Collecting | | | |
| 17. Writing for Publication | | | |
| 18. Getting More Out of Music | | | |
| 19. Enjoyment of Literature | | | |
| 20. Painting as a Hobby | | | |
| 21. Amateur Astronomy | | | |
| 22. Social Dancing | | | |
| 23. Other: | | | |
| **WORLD AFFAIRS AND CURRENT EVENTS** | | | |
| 24. The United Nations and Peace | | | |
| 25. Behind the Headlines | | | |
| 26. Government, Labor, and Capital | | | |
| 27. Other: | | | |

Most convenient time for you: 5-6______; 6-7______; 7-8______; 8-9______.

Name______________________________ Address______________________________

EXHIBIT 16

## CLUB QUESTIONNAIRE

### WE WOULD LIKE TO BE OF SERVICE TO YOU

The Community Center is interested in learning how it can be of service to you after you have completed the courses you have been studying. You are learning many skills and at the same time making many friends and acquaintances. We would like to develop a program that would make it possible for you to continue these leisure-time activities with your friends here at the Center. Listed below are various suggested activities. Please let us know your desires by checking those activities you would be most interested in joining.

CLUBS

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Hikers | ( ) | 7. Painting | ( ) | 13. Writing | ( ) |
| 2. Dance | ( ) | 8. Bridge | ( ) | 14. Dramatics | ( ) |
| 3. Discussion | ( ) | 9. Riding | ( ) | 15. Bowling | ( ) |
| 4. Couples | ( ) | 10. Camping | ( ) | 16. Glee Club | ( ) |
| 5. Speakers | ( ) | 11. Men's Club | ( ) | 17. Ceramics | ( ) |
| 6. Camera | ( ) | 12. Music | ( ) | 18. Golf | ( ) |

OTHER ____________________

____________________

INFORMATION

1. What would be the best time to hold club meetings?

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6:30 P.M. | ( ) | 7:30 P.M. | ( ) | 8:30 P.M. | ( ) |
| 7:00 P.M. | ( ) | 8:00 P.M. | ( ) | Other ________ | |

____________________

2. What would be the best day to hold club meetings? ____________________

3. What is your occupation? ____________________

____________________

4. Where do you work? Downtown ( ) North Side ( )
West Side ( ) South Side ( )
Other ____________________

5. Courses you are now taking ____________________

Name Mr. Mrs. Miss ____________________ Age ________

Address ____________________

Phone ____________________ ____________________
Home Business

*Experiment.* The final test, and the only reliable one, of what people are interested in is what they actually participate in. A sound principle is to build a program on a solid foundation of known interests, but always to have a certain proportion (say 10 to 20 per cent) of experimental offerings—subjects or activities that one has a hunch might attract a group. Following this principle may result in a "flop" or two in the program, but unless there are a few failures the chances are that the program is too stereotyped, that new interests are not being explored.

It would be a mistake, of course, to rely too heavily on any one of these methods of determining interests. They should all be used, and the findings of each weighed against the findings of the others. Then, with a good dash of sensitivity to human nature, a program director can put them together into a fairly reliable listing of interests.

## Stating Objectives

Following the organization of a directing committee and the determination of needs and interests, the logical next step is to state the program's objectives. Many organizations function without a clear statement of aims and goals, and usually the effects can be seen in the lack of integration and direction in their programs. Without a statement of objectives, such fundamental decisions as whether or not a certain course or lecture would fit into the program have to be made on the basis of expediency.

The statement of objectives will give answers to some or all the following questions:

1. What needs and interests are to be served?
2. What are to be the hoped-for outcomes to individuals; what changes in behavior will be sought?
3. What types of people do we wish to serve, in terms of age, sex, marital status, educational level, economic status, race, color, creed, and occupational ranking?
4. What will be the content of the program?
5. What methods will be used?
6. What will be the relationship of this program to other programs in the community?

7. What will be the role of this program in terms of the larger organization of which it is a part? How will it contribute to institutional development?

S. R. Slavson lists the general aims of both recreation and education as follows:[3]

1. Personality development
2. Character training
3. Social education
4. Discovery of avocational interests
5. Vocational guidance
6. Refining selective capacity
7. Developing power and creative imagination
8. Developing leadership
9. Evolving a guiding philosophy of life
10. Engendering intellectual hospitality
11. Developing a sense of reality

The University College, University of Chicago, lists its objectives this way:

PURPOSES

Although the University of Chicago, through its many parts, offers a broad and varied educational program, no single institution can meet all of man's educational needs. Indeed, no single kind of agency can meet all types of adult educational needs. The Downtown Center has therefore selected four broad purposes which it proposes to serve:

1. To provide the liberal arts of reading, writing, speaking, and listening to the end of a more rational solution of man's problems.

2. To provide adults with an opportunity to increase their understanding of the world through the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences.

3. To offer adults an opportunity for improvement of professional competence through advanced training.

4. To enable adults to discharge those responsibilities which the circumstances of mature life have brought them. The political and social responsibilities of parenthood, election to public office, voluntary public service, and other activities which affect the life of the community create needs among adults for information and assistance which the Downtown Center should provide.

[3] S. R. Slavson, *Character Education in a Democracy* (New York: Association Press, 1939), p. 72.

## GUIDING PRINCIPLES

In order to develop programs which will serve these four broad needs of adults in our society, it has been necessary for the Downtown Center to establish principles which can be applied in indicating the proper scope of its specific objectives. These principles are peculiar to a private university which permits considerable freedom of purpose. They are:

1. The program developed should be in accord with the broad objectives of the University.

2. The programs should be designed to reach leaders. While University College cannot hope to serve large numbers of people directly, it can reach large numbers indirectly by the intensive education of leaders.

3. The content of any activity should be at a broad and complex level.

4. The activities should be of a pioneering nature. The Downtown Center is dedicated to the task of building a better man and a better society. Such an end can be achieved only by experimentation and demonstration with a view to the development of programs, materials of instruction, and teaching techniques best adapted to the distinctive and changing educational needs of adults.

5. The Downtown Center should co-operate with other professional adult educational agencies and groups which are committed to like objectives.

6. The Downtown Center should work co-operatively with associations and other groups which are composed of mature persons of the type which it wishes to reach as students.

The following statement was prepared by the directing committee of the adult education program of the Central Y.M.C.A. of Chicago:

The objectives of the Adult Education Program are as follows:

A. To develop services and activities, such as informal classes, fellowship clubs, special interest groups, forums, institutes, exhibits, and publications, which will contribute to the satisfaction of such adult needs as the following:

1. Development of an adequate personality and personal adjustment
2. Attaining a happy home and family life
3. Improving effectiveness and adjustment at work; achieving economic security for self and society
4. Improving one's ability to express himself in speech and writing

5. Increasing personal happiness through leisure-time activity
6. Improving social skills and one's understanding of people; taking an effective part in group life
7. Understanding current social issues and trends and developing skill in civic participation; learning to think and act democratically
8. Attaining and holding good health
9. Developing an adequate philosophy of life
10. Understanding the customs, traditions, history, thought, and other core values of one's society

B. To serve as a laboratory for the development of new materials and techniques in meeting the needs of adults

C. To assist and co-operate with other agencies and groups in the community in efforts to bring more and better educational opportunities to adults

The Sunday Evening Forum of Evanston, Illinois, states its purpose in these words:

> The purpose of the Evanston Sunday Evening Forum is to provide to Evanstonians a basic demonstration of the liberal approach to the solution of human problems, in which the goal is always the common welfare; to stimulate thinking and the expression of opinion on those problems; to promote understanding and the spirit of fellowship; and to encourage individuals and groups to act vigorously toward the end of achieving the kind of society in which they believe.

One particularly troublesome problem to many institutional program directors is that of the relationship of their program to other programs in the community. Most of them wish to avoid competing with or duplicating the programs of other agencies, and yet it is often almost impossible to determine when duplication exists. The following principles will be helpful to practitioners facing this problem.

Duplication is not considered to exist if any of the following conditions obtain:

> 1. If the programs serve essentially different clienteles, as determined by membership requirements, convenience of location, educational prerequisites, etc.
>
> 2. If there is a substantial difference in the costs to the students.
>
> 3. If there is a significant difference in the objectives of the

"competing" programs. For instance, those programs whose primary objectives are degree-granting or technical training do not, for the most part, serve the same needs as an informal, "learning-for-living" type of program.

4. If there are radically different methods of instruction. For instance, a series of lectures to 200 people does not serve the same needs as a seminar group of twenty.

5. If there is a difference in the subject matter treated. Many courses will be concerned with specialized parts of larger subjects, and therefore would not serve the same needs.

6. If existing programs are filled to capacity and cannot take additional students.

7. If other programs are offered at a different time of day or year.

One final word should be said about objectives: they should be flexible. It is good organizational practice for the directing committee to review its statement of objectives, and to revise it in the light of current experience. While clear objectives are essential to sound organization, nothing is so stultifying to progress as hoary traditions that have become sacred. As the needs and interests of people change, so should the objectives of an organization in the business of serving people.

## Staffing the Organization

The requirements for staff services vary so widely with the type of organization and type of program that not many generalizations can be made about them. Most of the adult education workers in the country today are volunteers—people who serve for one or two years as program chairmen for their clubs, churches, civic organizations, and other associations. On the other hand, there are several thousand full-time professional adult education workers—staff employees in public schools, universities, government, labor unions, industries, and social agencies—and the number is growing rapidly each year. The problem of selecting, training, and supervising volunteer workers is quite different from that of professional workers, and excellent manuals are available on both problems.

The staffing of an organization involves these steps:

1. Estimate the types and volume of work to be done. An

adult education program may involve any of the following types of staff service:

a. Planning and administration
b. Committee work
c. Clerical service correspondence, records and files, etc.
d. Counseling and registration of participants
e. Selection and supervision of leaders
f. Promotion, publicity, advertising
g. Interpreting: reports, speeches, etc.

2. Divide this work into job units and frame a job specification for each unit. Where volunteers are to be used, these units must be relatively small and should be divided among a number of people. With professional workers, the units can be relatively large.

3. Select staff workers on the basis of criteria set forth in the job specifications.

4. Train and supervise these staff workers according to principles of democratic administration.

It is of major importance that an accurate estimate be made of the staff services that will be required and that either an adequate staff be provided or the program be limited to the staff service available.

## Providing Good Physical Resources

The physical setting in which a program takes place and the equipment available for program use are important elements in determining the quality and effectiveness of the experiences that participants will have. While there is wide variation in the physical needs of the different types of programs, certain principles apply to all of them.

### MEETING ROOMS

The setting in which activities are held will influence the spirit of the activities. A formal lecture hall will tend to produce a rigidly formal audience, whereas an informal room with comfortable furniture arranged around tables will produce a spirit of friendly informality. The mistake is sometimes made of trying to hold an informal discussion in a formal classroom,

with all chairs facing forward. This physical obstacle to discussion is sometimes too great to overcome.

Certain advance preparations must be made. The room should be properly ventilated before the group assembles and blackboards, chalk, erasers, and other equipment should be properly placed. These "trifles" are often overlooked.

In formal lecture halls, the speakers' chairs should be properly placed at the front of the room or on the stage. Water and glasses should be ready for use on the speaker's table. The amplifying system, if there is one, should be put in working order before the audience arrives. Ushers should be provided to insure that the front seats will be occupied first.

Informal discussion rooms should suggest a feeling of friendliness and comfort. Chairs should be arranged so that no person is facing the back of another person. If smoking is permitted ash trays should be provided.

### OFFICE FACILITIES

The office arrangements in institutional programs also play an important part in setting the spirit of a program. The two extremes are the cold and formal but efficient office on the one hand, and the informal but "messy" office on the other. Ideally, an office should be both efficient and friendly. How can this ideal be accomplished?

First, the type of decorations influences the general tone. Is the color scheme light and cheerful? Are there attractive pictures on the walls? Is the light adequate? Is the furniture attractive and comfortable?

The general layout is important to both efficiency and appearance. Are the desks placed in such a way as to reflect a desire to serve people conveniently and pleasantly? Are the desks neat? Are the filing cabinets and other office equipment inconspicuous but convenient? Is the whole office arranged so that there is a smooth flow of traffic through the various procedures, so that there is a minimum of waiting in line?

Care should be taken to provide adequate and up-to-date office equipment. Are there enough desks and tables, and are they in good condition? Are the typewriters, duplicating ma-

chines, and other office equipment in good condition? Are there enough filing cabinets, and do they fit in with the other furniture?

Usually the office is the first point of contact people have with a program. This first impression is an important one. It should reflect the quality and modernity, the warmth and efficiency of the program. It should both sell and serve.

### RESOURCE FILE

Good organization is greatly facilitated by an efficient filing system. While the exact types of files will vary with the types of programs, one file that every organization, large or small, should have, is a *resource file*.

This is an organized compilation of information about sources of speakers, materials, and other resources for program building. Such a file might be in the form of folders containing letters, announcements, and pamphlets. Even better is a card file, with cards containing essential data about each resource and divided according to subject matter. Here is how such a file works:

1. A supply of 3" x 5" cards is mimeographed in the following form:

EXHIBIT 17

**RESOURCE RECORD**

---------------------------
Classification

Organization or Name: ____________________

Bus. Address: ____________________ Zone ________

Bus. Tel. ____________________ Home Tel. ____________

Home address: ____________________

Nature of resource: ____________________

____________________

Conditions of use (Fee, equipment required, etc.) ____________

____________________

2. On about fifty blank 3″ x 5″ tab cards are written the subject-matter classifications of the types of resources used in the program. These may be:

Adult Education Agencies
Advertising
Arts and Crafts
Business
Camera Clubs
Clubs, Fraternal
Economics
Education
Entertainment
Films
Forums
Group Work
Health
Hobbies
International Relations
Insurance
Labor
Languages
Law
Leaders
Literature
Magic
Mailing Lists
Mailing Services
Marriage
Materials and Supplies
Music
Newspapers, Daily
Newspapers, Community
Newspapers, Industrial
Psychology
Photography
Printers
Public Affairs
Public Relations
Radio
Reading
Real Estate
Religion
Science
Sign Painters
Speakers' Bureaus
Speech
Typewriter Repair
Vocational Guidance
Woodcarving
Writing

3. Records are made out for all resources now in the files, showing the classification in the upper right-hand corner. A given resource might appear under several classifications. For instance, Dr. John Doe of the Family Relations Clinic might have cards under both "Marriage" and "Psychology." The card is then placed behind the right classification tab card.

4. Be alert for new resources—e.g., watch the newspapers for reports on speakers, scan the program announcements from other organizations—and when a resource that might fit into the program is spotted, enter it on a card.

5. Go through the resource file periodically, culling out the deadwood and noting on the reverse side of each card a brief evaluation of each resource that has been used.

Such a resource file is an invaluable aid in program planning. It makes the information readily available to lay leaders and other professional workers. It is flexible and easy to keep up to date.

PROGRAM EQUIPMENT

Great advances have been made in recent years in developing educational equipment. Few institutions can afford to be without sound motion picture projectors, and there are many other visual instruments—slide projectors, bellopticons, maps, charts, globes, and models. Auditory devices include public address systems, intercommunication systems, phonographs, record-making equipment, wire recorders, and radio and television receivers. There is also a wide variety of laboratory equipment, arts and crafts equipment, testing devices, and workshop machinery.

Equipment is a nuisance in many ways—it requires constant repair and the training of operators. But the quality and variety of equipment at the disposal of a program will greatly influence its quality and appeal.

## Financing the Program

Financial requirements and practices vary widely according to the type of program and sponsoring institution. Some programs are completely subsidized. Others must show a profit.

Some organizations, particularly churches and settlement houses, are able to produce educational programs with almost no financial budget, because of their ability to attract volunteer leaders. Others, including the public schools and industry, provide educational programs that are completely subsidized. In between are thousands of organizations that are constantly battling with the problem of how to raise enough money to pay for the speakers, staff, instructors, rent, promotion, equipment, and other expenses.

There is no pat formula for solving the problem of financing an educational program. Some general principles, however, apply to all types of programs:

1. *A financial goal should be set, based on consideration of estimated necessary expenses and of possible income.* A women's club that sponsors six educational meetings a year will have a very much smaller financial goal than the community center

that offers over a hundred courses; but unless a goal is set in both cases, financial planning is almost impossible.

The typical practice in informal adult education is to set a goal that is too low. There seems to be an expectation that educational programs cost very little money, with the result that many of them are poorly financed, poorly promoted, and provided with second-rate leadership. This accounts for many disappointments.

On the other hand, there is ample evidence that when a financial goal is set high enough to provide a program of high quality, the funds necessary to achieve the goal are forthcoming. People are willing to pay for programs that are interesting and that meet their needs.

2. *A detailed plan should be formulated for producing whatever income is required.* Some of the sources of financing open to various kinds of organizations are:

a. *Charges to participants.* In organized classes, this is usually a tuition fee. In lecture series and forums, it may be either free-will offerings or admission fees. In clubs and ongoing groups, it may be membership dues or special assessments.

b. *Appropriations from the general funds of an organization.* When the educational program is a part of a larger organization, such as a social agency, church, women's club, and the like, a share of its total income may be set aside for the educational program.

c. *Contributions from outside sources.* Many organizations that do not limit their services to their own members may go directly to the community for support. This support may be from the community fund, if the organization is eligible, or from foundations, or from individual contributions. A most common practice is to conduct a campaign for private contributions.

3. *A budget should be prepared to serve as a basis for financial planning and control.* A reasonable estimate of both expenditures and income, broken down into specific items, should be prepared. Sample budgets for three types of organizations are given in Exhibits 18, 19, and 20.

4. *Expenses should be incurred only under proper authorization.* The approval of a budget by a policy-making committee is general authorization for the incurring of expenses. Beyond

EXHIBIT 18

## FINANCIAL BUDGET FOR 1950

### Middleburg Women's Club, Educational Program

| ITEM | EXPENSE | INCOME |
|---|---|---|
| Fees to speakers | $150 | |
| Printed folders | 75 | |
| Postage | 50 | |
| Mimeographing | 25 | |
| Refreshments | 75 | |
| Rental of hall | 60 | |
| Miscellaneous | 25 | |
| Profit from sale of books | | $ 15 |
| Individual contributions | | 200 |
| Appropriation from treasury | | 245 |
| | $460 | $460 |

EXHIBIT 19

## FINANCIAL BUDGET FOR 1950

### Middleburg Community Center, Educational Program

| ITEM | EXPENSE | INCOME |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Salary for staff director (½ time) | $1800 | |
| 2. Clerical service | 900 | |
| 3. Instructors' compensation (6 courses, twice a year) | 600 | |
| 4. Expenses for volunteers | 100 | |
| 5. Promotion materials | 250 | |
| 6. Newspaper advertising | 150 | |
| 7. Forum speakers' fees (3 forums) | 150 | |
| 8. Postage | 125 | |
| 9. Office supplies | 125 | |
| 10. Activities supplies | 75 | |
| 11. Telephone | 75 | |
| 12. Equipment purchase and upkeep | 100 | |
| 13. Share of building costs | 500 | |
| 14. Tuition fees (200 students @ $5) | | $1000 |
| 15. Admissions to forum (300 @ 75c) | | 225 |
| 16. Individual contributions and memberships | | 1500 |
| 17. Appropriation from general budget and community fund | | 2225 |
| | $4950 | $4950 |

EXHIBIT 20

## FINANCIAL BUDGET FOR 1950

### Central Y.M.C.A., Chicago, Illinois, Adult Education

STANDARD BUDGET FORM NO. 1 2500 12-49

THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF CHICAGO

CENTRAL Department

FINANCIAL BUDGET FOR YEAR OF 19~~4~~50

Adult Education Section

| ACCOUNTS | | EXPENSE (omit cents) | | | INCOME (omit cents) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NO. | NAME (Abbreviate Name) | BUDGET PREVIOUS YEAR | ACTUAL PREVIOUS YEAR | PROPOSED BUDGET THIS YEAR | BUDGET PREVIOUS YEAR | ACTUAL PREVIOUS YEAR | PROPOSED BUDGET THIS YEAR |
| | When Typing Please Double Space | | | | | | |
| GA 1 | Professional Staff Sal. | $ 10,780 | $ 12,136. | $ 12,349. | $ 600. | $ 1,325. | $ 825. |
| 1/3 | Sal., Instructors | 21,557. | 24,978. | 29,080. | | | |
| 1/5 | Sal. Leaders & Speakers | 1,570. | 1,048. | 1,200. | | | |
| 2 | Salaries - Office | 5,344. | 7,653. | 6,270. | | | |
| 3 | Employees Exp. | 1,120. | 1,669. | 1,300. | | | |
| 4 | Retirement Fund | 678. | 757. | 942. | | | |
| 4/2 | Employee Insurance | 112. | 197. | 233. | | | |
| 6 | Gen. Promotion | 1,955. | 1,420. | 1,340. | | | |
| 6/3 | Direct Mail Promotion | 4,055. | 5,160. | 4,500. | | | |
| 6/13 | Newspaper Promotion | 2,700. | 2,885. | 2,430. | | | |
| 8 | Operating Supplies | 1,825. | 2,542. | 1,700. | | | |
| 12 | Telephone | 900. | 1,044. | 432. | | | |
| 22 | Equipment | 295. | 374. | 300. | | | |
| 27 | Rent | 0. | 900. | 4,650. | | | |
| 45/3 | Tuition | 750. | 1,033. | 750. | 46,640. | 59,531. | 73,375. |
| 47/3 | Contributions | | | | 875. | 474. | 4,928. |
| 54/3 | Community Fund | | | | 2,957. | 2,762. | 2,762. |
| 56/1 | Business Office | 2,698. | 2,698. | 8,466. | | | |
| 70 | Share House Expense | 2,991. | 3,550. | 5,948. | | | |
| | | $ 59,330. | $ 70,044. | $ 81,890. | $ 51,072. | $ 64,092. | $ 81,890. |

NOTE: This program was started in October, 1946, on a budget of $8,233. expense and $7,000 income.

this, however, there should be a clear understanding as to what persons are authorized to expend funds and under what conditions. For example, it is common practice for authorized individuals to be permitted to spend up to a fixed maximum without specific approval, but expenditures over this amount

must be approved individually by the policymaking authority.

5. *Adequate records of all financial transactions should be kept.* These records should be accurate, clear, as full as necessary, and as simple as practical. Transactions should be recorded as they occur and should be supported by vouchers and receipts. The accounting system should guard against fraud and mistakes.

6. *The accounts should be audited by a C.P.A. or an auditing committee at least once a year.*

7. *A financial report should be published at least annually.* This report should consist of an itemized list of actual income and expenses, accompanied by interpretive or explanatory comments.

## Interpreting and Reporting

Every organization has a public which it has spent time, energy, and money to cultivate. This public consists of participants in the program, members of the larger organization, committees, state and national headquarters, and various individuals and groups in the community at large. If the interest of this public is to be maintained, it should be informed periodically of the work of the organization.

Reports may be oral, to a directing committee or to a gathering of the participants; or they may be written—mimeographed or printed—and distributed more or less extensively. Some of the most effective interpretive reports are in the form of pageants or tableaux at annual meetings, graduation exercises, or open-house programs.

General principles suggested for guidance in preparing reports are:

1. Reports should be made frequently to individuals and groups intimately involved in the program, at least annually to the larger public.

2. The aim of each report should be clearly formulated before it is prepared. What is its audience? What results should it accomplish? What will be its scope?

3. The report should be based on accurate facts. (See Chapter 11 for methods of evaluation.)

4. The process of preparation should involve as many people as possible. It should be based on the co-operative efforts of staff, committees, leaders, and participants.

5. The style of the report should be clear, concise, and readable. It should be dignified but dramatic. Charts, graphs, case histories, and photographs will greatly enhance its effectiveness.

6. The content of the report might be concerned with any or all of these items:

Objectives of the program
Nature of the program
Resources used—human and physical
Financial experience
Methods employed
Results accomplished
Plans for the future

## Constitution and By-laws

Many organizations, especially clubs and groups based on continuous membership, find it desirable to express their organizational philosophy and structure in a constitution and by-laws. An acceptable outline for a constitution and by-laws is the following:

### CONSTITUTION

Article I: NAME
Article II: PURPOSE
Article III: MEMBERSHIP
Article IV: COMMITTEES
Article V: MEETINGS
Article VI: OFFICERS
Article VII: NOMINATION PROCEDURES
Article VIII: PROGRAM
Article IX: REFERENDUM
Article X: AMENDMENTS
Article XI: BY-LAWS, provision for
Article XII: IMPLEMENTATION OF CONSTITUTION

### BY-LAWS

Article I: PRINCIPLES
Article II: QUALIFICATIONS FOR MEMBERSHIP

Article III: DUTIES OF COMMITTEES
Article IV: QUORUM
Article V: DUTIES OF OFFICERS
Article VI: RULES AND PROCEDURES GOVERNING THE ORGANIZATION
Article VII: RULES AND PROCEDURES GOVERNING BUSINESS MEETINGS

## Implications of Planning and Organizing

It is obvious that planning and organizing are essential to the efficient operation of programs of informal adult education. Not so obvious is an equally important fact: The very process of planning and organizing is itself an educative experience. It is by participating in democratic organizations that participants best acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills that make them effective practitioners of democracy.

# 9

## PLANNING GOOD PROMOTION

MANY GOOD PROGRAMS have failed because of poor promotion —people just never heard about them, or did not realize how good they were.

Good promotion goes deeper than merely describing a program. Adult education has to be "sold." One of the major functions of adult education is to "sell" to people the idea of continuing to learn. It is important to society and to each individual that interest in adult education be aroused, that people catch fire about its possibilities.

Looked at in this light, the promotion of adult education becomes something of a crusade. Adult educators are challenged to learn the skills developed by the advertising business in behalf of mass entertainment, and to apply them, when they are fitting, to their own worthy cause. There is no reason for any program director to be ashamed of selling his wares—provided, of course, they are worth it.

The well-tested methods at our command involve four basic steps: (1) defining the clientele; (2) planning the campaign; (3) preparing and distributing materials; and (4) evaluating results.

### Defining the Clientele

Defining the clientele is an essential first step. This is simple if the program is designed for the members of a single organization, such as a church or an industrial plant. Even then, it is helpful to know the age, sex, marital status, educational background, economic status, and interests of the potential partici-

pants, in order that promotion materials may be designed to appeal to them.

If the program is community-wide, the problem is more complex—and requires greater care. The most effective promotion is "rifle-shot" promotion, aimed directly at specific persons or groups. If an appeal is to be made particularly to young people, a list of youth-serving organizations will be needed and special promotion materials will be directed to them. Other lists would be required for appeals to members of labor unions, various occupational groupings, professional people, college graduates, members of minority groups, and other special groupings. The University College of the University of Chicago determined that it wanted to attract and serve the "leaders" of the community. This necessitated the development of a list of the officers of hundreds of different organizations.

The more precisely the clientele is defined, the more effective the promotion campaign will be.

## Planning the Promotion Campaign

Whether the goal is to attract fifty people to a club lecture series or five thousand to a university extension program, careful advance planning results in more effective effort and makes the promotion job easier. It reduces the strain and tension on the director, it facilitates dividing the work among a number of people, and it makes it possible to prepare much of the material considerably in advance. Probably the soundest policy is to develop a general plan for the year and then to map out more specific plans for each month, series, quarter, or semester.

The plan is likely to be more effective if it is the result of group thinking than if it is developed entirely by an individual. The directing committee, or a special subcommittee on promotion, and the staff are logical groups to bring into the planning process.

The planning of promotion involves two steps, the first of which is building the promotion budget. How much money should be spent on promotion? In some situations this figure may be set by some higher authority, such as legislation or "headquarters policy." In others, it is an open question, and

frequently a very troublesome one. The tendency is to be too conservative. As a result, many programs fail to reach the number of people they should and could reach, and the materials are so cheap that they do justice neither to the organizations they represent nor to adult education as a movement.

Various formulas have been devised for calculating the amount of money to spend on promotion. For instance, one organization sets its promotion allowance automatically at 15 per cent of the total budget. Another figures that it must spend $1.50 on promotion for each enrollment it hopes to receive. Still others map out the kind of promotion campaign they feel will attract the number of people they want, and then allocate whatever amount of money is required. Situations vary so widely according to community, type of organization, and type of program that it is futile to try to state a rule that would apply to all.

One way to go about solving the problem in any situation is to use this process:

1. Estimate the number of people needed to make the program a success.

2. Estimate the amount of promotion (number of printed announcements, advertisements, etc.) that will be required to attract this many people. The experience of similar organizations in the community may be helpful in making this estimate. In general, a 10 per cent response on direct mail promotion is considered excellent.

3. Determine the cost (printing, mailing, advertising, etc.) of this amount of promotion.

4. If the resulting figure is so high as to be completely out of line it will, of course, have to be reduced, with an equivalent curtailment of the promotion campaign. Keep in mind, though, that it is more common to spend too little on promotion than too much.

It is generally true that the per capita cost of promotion is higher in the early stages of a new program, and that it tapers off as the number of participants increases. As soon as a body of satisfied customers is developed, they will promote the program by word of mouth.

After settling on the amount of money to spend on promotion, the next problem is to decide how to spend it. How much

should be earmarked for newspaper advertising, how much for direct mail, how much for the other media? There is no general rule that applies to all situations. The best guide is experience—the experience of other organizations with similar problems and the experience that comes from trial and evaluation.

The promotion budget should grow out of a *general plan of promotion.* If the available funds are to be divided intelligently among the various media, it is essential that the total promotion picture be seen. One method of developing an over-all plan of promotion is to devote an entire meeting of the planning group to listing the promotion possibilities for the program as a whole and for each specific activity. For a lecture series, for example, the group first lists the individuals and groups it feels would be interested in the series as a whole. Then it considers each meeting topic and thinks of additional groups having a specific interest in particular topics. The same

EXHIBIT 21

**GENERAL PLAN OF PROMOTION**

**Middleburg Community Center—Fall, 1949**

| *Groups to be reached* | *Methods of reaching them* |
|---|---|
| 1. General promotion | |
| Community Center membership | Direct mail |
| General public | Newspaper advertising and publicity |
| Employees of larger businesses | Posters, publicity in house organs, letters to personnel managers |
| Library users | Posters, letters to librarians |
| 2. Forum promotion | |
| Labor union members | Special flier on labor meeting; direct mail |
| Real estate owners and operators (concerning housing debate) | Letter to members of Real Estate Board; classified ads in daily papers; display ad in real estate journal |
| League of Women Voters | Letter to president; news story in monthly paper |
| 3. Promotion of parent-education course | |
| Parent-teachers' Associations | Special folder; direct mail |
| Schoolteachers | Letters to principals |

process is used in course programs, club programs, forums, and conferences. Exhibit 21 illustrates this kind of over-all plan.

It is possible, by doing some rough estimating, to determine what proportion of the promotion funds should be allocated to each medium—subject to the testing and adjusting of the proportions in the light of experience. Exhibit 22 shows a promotion budget formulated on this basis.

The second step in planning the promotion campaign is to draw up specific schedules showing exactly when and how the general plan is to be accomplished through each medium. A well-rounded campaign usually has at least three types of schedules: newspaper advertising, newspaper and radio publicity, and direct mail promotion.

In drafting the promotion schedules, thought should be

EXHIBIT 22

**PROMOTION BUDGET, FALL, 1949**

**Middleburg Community Center**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Newspaper advertising* | | |
| Display ads, daily papers | $25 | |
| Classified ads, daily papers | 25 | |
| Display ads, neighborhood and trade papers | 25 | |
| Total | | $75 |
| *Newspaper publicity* | | |
| Mimeographing | $50 | |
| Postage | 25 | |
| Total | | 75 |
| *Direct mail promotion* | | |
| Printing | $75 | |
| Mimeographing | 25 | |
| Addressing | 25 | |
| Postage | 60 | |
| Total | | 185 |
| *Posters, displays, and exhibits* | | |
| Printing | $50 | |
| Sign painting | 25 | |
| Distribution | 10 | |
| Total | | 85 |
| Grand total | | $420 |

given to the most effective timing of the various elements. Experience indicates that if printed materials are received too far in advance, people put them aside and forget about them. No immediate action of any kind is required. On the other hand, if the notice is too short, the prospective participants may either have other plans already made or feel that they need more time to think it over. The right time for a given program has to be determined by trial and error, but about three weeks advance notice for the printed materials seems to be effective in most cases.

Since the printed announcement is the final salesman of a program, all other promotion efforts must be keyed to it. The chief purpose of advertising, publicity, posters, and other promotion devices is to bring in requests for the program announcements. Assuming that printed materials are more effective if put into the hands of prospects about two or three weeks before the opening of the program, it seems to be sound practice to start the campaign with advance promotion about six weeks before the opening. The intensity of the campaign should rise gradually to a climax about two weeks before opening.

Exhibits 23, 24, 25, and 26 show how these principles worked out in various promotion schedules in the adult education program of Central Y.M.C.A., Chicago. While these schedules are more extensive than most adult education programs require, they illustrate the process that should be followed, regardless of the size of the program. Notice that the publicity stories, advertisements, posters, and institutional mailings started from four to six weeks in advance of the opening date. About three weeks in advance of the opening, direct mailings to individuals were sent out, and the publicity and advertising insertions became more frequent. Then there was a postcard reminder in the last week. Publicity stories kept the campaign rolling during the term.

## Integrating the Program with a Theme

A program is more effective if its parts are tied together with a theme, slogan, title, or symbol. This theme may be

EXHIBIT 23

## NEWSPAPER ADVERTISING SCHEDULE

### Central Y.M.C.A. Adult Education Program

*Spring, 1948* (Starting April 6)

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Herald-American* classified ad, 1 mo. | | | $100.00 | |
| Community Newspapers | | | 50.00 | |
| | | | | $150.00 |
| General ad—24 lines—Schools Section | | | | |
| *Tribune* | Sunday | 3 times—March 7, 28, April 4 | | $118.80 |
| *Herald American* | Sunday | 1 time —March 21 | | 25.20 |
| *News* | Wednesday | 1 time —March 31 | | 16.30 |
| *Sun-Times* | Sunday | 1 time —March 28 | | 15.60 |
| | | | | $175.90 |
| Dancing ad—14 lines—Run of paper | | | | |
| *Tribune* | Daily | 2 times March 24, April 5 | | $ 39.20 |
| *News* | Daily | 2 times—March 23, 29 | | 19.60 |
| Salesmanship ad—14 lines—Business section | | | | |
| *News* | Daily | 1 time —March 17 | | $ 9.80 |
| Contract Bridge—14 lines—on same page as bridge column | | | | |
| *Tribune* | Daily | 1 time —March 22 | | $ 19.60 |
| *News* | Daily | 1 time —March 23 | | 9.80 |
| Interior Decoration—14 lines—On homes furnishing page | | | | |
| *Sun-Times* | Daily | 1 time —March 23 | | $ 8.10 |
| Accounting ad—14 lines—Business section | | | | |
| *Tribune* | Daily | 1 time —March 25 | | $ 19.60 |
| *News* | Daily | 1 time —March 24 | | 9.80 |
| | | Total | | $458.60 |

expressed in words with distinctive lettering or by a design. It should appear on all promotion pieces—advertisements, printed materials, and letterheads in order that the relationship among the various pieces is immediately evident.

The University Extension of the University of California heads all its materials with the caption, "Lifelong learning." The Central Y.M.C.A. of Chicago uses "Learning for living" as the trademark of its adult education program, with a design featuring the triangle. Exhibit 27 shows how this symbol is carried through all of its promotion materials. (See page 207.)

EXHIBIT 24

## DIRECT MAIL PROMOTION SCHEDULE—ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM

**Central Y.M.C.A., Chicago, Illinois**
**Spring, 1948 (Starting April 6)**

| MAILING LIST | DATE | LETTER | ENVELOPES NO. | CATALOGS NO. | POSTERS NO. | FLIERS | REMARKS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Institutional List | Mar. 1 | #1 | 9 by 12 40 | 400 | 100 | None | Addressograph |
| Personnel Managers | Mar. 1 | #2 | 9 by 12 125 | 675 | 300 | None | Addressograph |
| Y.M.C.A. Executives | Mar. 8 | #1 | 9 by 12 24 | 300 | 100 | None | Addressograph |
| Present Ad. Ed. Students | Mar. 15 | None | Permit 900 | 1 ea. 900 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Former Ad. Ed. Students | Mar. 15 | None | Permit 3950 | 1 ea. 3950 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Ad. Ed. Prospects | Mar. 15 | None | Permit 2200 | 1 ea. 2200 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Y.M.C.A. Members & La Salle Club | Mar. 15 | #5 | Permit 1650 | 1 ea. 1650 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Nurses Homes | Mar. 15 | #4 | Cat. Size 124 | 5 ea. 625 | None | None | Hand address from Red Book "Hospitals" |
| Eleanor Clubs | Mar. 15 | None | Cat. Size 7 | 5 ea. 35 | None | None | Hand address from Red Book "Clubs" |
| Public Libraries | Mar. 8 | #1 | 9 by 12 54 | 2 ea. 108 | 2 ea. 108 | 2000 | Addressograph |
| Book Stores | Mar. 11 | #1 | Cat. Size 60 | 1 ea. 60 | None | 1000 | Hand address special list |
| Ad. Ed. Council Bd. of Directors | Mar. 15 | None | 1st class 17 | 1 ea. 17 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Y.M.C.A. Bd. of Directors | Mar. 15 | #3 | 1st class 30 | 1 ea. 30 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Ad. Ed. Committee | Mar. 15 | #3 | 1st class 20 | 1 ea. 20 | None | None | Addressograph |
| Reminder Postcard to A. E. Students & Prospects | Mar. 29—10,970 cards | | | | | | |
| | | | | 10,970 | 608 | 3,000 | |

EXHIBIT 25

## SCHEDULE OF SPECIAL FORM LETTERS

### Central Y.M.C.A. Adult Education Program

*Spring Term, 1948* (Starting April 6)

| | DATE | LETTER | ENVELOPES | AMT. | ENC. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Former Dancing Students | Mar. 22 | #10 | 1st class | 414 | None |
| Former Painting Students | Mar. 22 | #11 | 1st class | 168 | None |
| Former Photography Students | Mar. 22 | #12 | 1st class | 125 | None |
| Former Public Speaking Students (re Parliamentary Law and Using Good English) | Mar. 22 | #6 | 1st class | 107 | None |
| Social Agency Directors and Y.M.C.A. Exec. Sec. (re Promotion & Publicity) | Mar. 22 | #7 | 1st class | 95 | "Blurbs" and catalogs |
| Real Estate Students, former (re Starting Your Own Bus. and Accounting) | Mar. 22 | #8 | 1st class | 680 | Return Post Card |
| Former Income Tax Students | Mar. 22 | #9 | 1st class | 54 | None |
| Former Music Students | Mar. 30 | #13 | 1st class | 83 | None |
| Former Reading Students | Mar. 30 | #14 | 1st class | 62 | None |

EXHIBIT 26

## PUBLICITY SCHEDULE

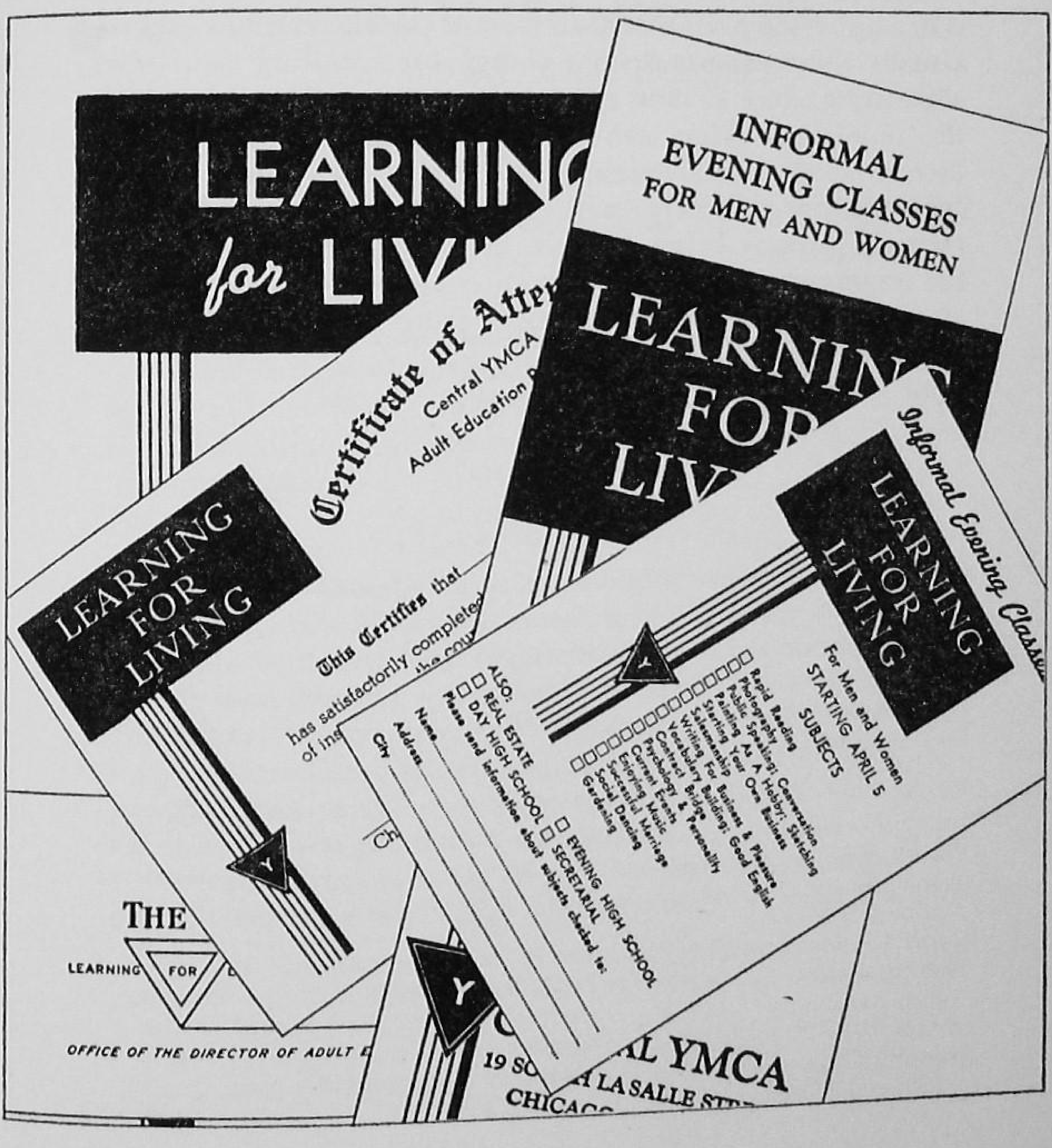
### Central Y.M.C.A. Adult Education Program

*Spring Term, 1948* (Starting April 6)

| PRIMARY SUBJECT | MEDIUM | DATE |
|---|---|---|
| General Announcement | City Press, House Organs, Com. Papers | March 1 |
| Reading Courses | City Editors | March 25 |
| Business Courses | Business Editors and Bar Ass'n, Law Review, Ass'n of Commerce, J. of Commerce | March 30 |
| Interior Decoration | Woman's Page Editors | March 26 |
| Photography | City Editors | March 29 |
| Music Courses | Music Editors | March 31 |
| Automobile Driving | Travel Editors | April 1 |
| General Announcement | City Editors | April 4 |
| Housing Course (General Plans) | Real Estate Editors, daily papers and Real Estate weeklies | March 26 |
| Housing Course (General Plans) | Community Papers and House Organs | March 26 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Housing Course .............. (Instructors appointed) | City Editors ............. | April 4 |
| Housing Course .............. (Topics Treated) | City Editors .............. | April 18 |
| Human Interest Stories ....... | Feature Writers ........ | During Term |
| Radio Interviews ............. | Stations WGN, WMAQ . | During Term |

EXHIBIT 27



## Getting Expert Advice

It has been stated that the planning of a promotion campaign should be done by a group. A corollary to this principle is that the thinking should be as expert as possible. Skillful and experienced advertising representatives, newspaper men, and direct mail specialists often are willing to serve on committees for causes in which they are interested.

Another method of obtaining expert advice on promotion is to employ the professional services of public relations experts. Usually these experts do not charge for handling newspaper advertising, since in most cases they receive a commission from the publishers. They can be very helpful, in addition, in increasing the effectiveness of the direct mail and publicity campaigns, at relatively small extra cost. Not only can public relations experts bring creative ideas and skilled services to the promotion campaign, but their experience with other situations can help to make estimates more accurate and errors less costly.

# 10

## PREPARING AND DISTRIBUTING PROMOTION MATERIALS

THE DEVELOPMENT of a general plan, the mapping out of a promotion campaign, and the drawing up of schedules are the preliminary steps in promoting a program. The major task is then to prepare and distribute promotion materials.

A wide variety of choices is open in the use of the various promotion media. A knowledge of a few principles that apply to each medium will help the director to use it with judgment and imagination.

### Newspaper Advertising

Newspaper advertising is a "shotgun" medium—it reaches out to the public at large. It is useful in attracting the attention of people with whom an organization does not now have contact. It is an effective way to build prospect lists for direct mail campaigns. Various types of newspapers accept advertising, ranging from house organs and neighborhood weeklies to metropolitan dailies. All should be considered in the light of the needs of a given promotion campaign.

Program directors seem to get the best results from newspaper advertising when they observe the following principles:

1. A definite schedule of advertising should be carefully drafted. (See the section of the previous chapter dealing with scheduling.)

2. A large number of relatively small display ads (one to three inches) seems to be more effective than a small number of larger ads.

3. The display ad should have an eye-catching headline or reverse-plate banner, but should be dignified.

4. The copy should be easy to read and have sales appeal, but most of the space should be devoted to a listing of specific activities—not generalizations about the program. A person will be more attracted to a course on public speaking, if that's what he wants, than to a program of adult education in the abstract.

5. Classified ads are effective when they can be directed to special groups of readers concerning particular activities designed for them.

6. Display ads may be general, concerning the program as a whole, or specific, featuring only one type of activity, such as business courses. The general ads can appear on any page in the paper, but the specific ad is more effective if it appears on the page concerned with the subject of the ad. For instance, an ad on business courses should appear on the finance page; an ad on interior decoration, on the home furnishings page, etc.

7. Advertisements in community newspapers, trade journals, house organs, church papers, club news sheets, labor union publications, concert programs, etc. are especially effective when they can appeal to a specialized interest of the readers of the particular paper.

8. Professional advice should be obtained on the layout, typography, size, frequency, and other aspects of advertising. Such service can be obtained from public relations agencies or the newspaper advertising departments.

The sample advertisements in Exhibit 28 incorporate many of these principles. They have proved to be effective in the situation for which they were designed.

## Newspaper Publicity

Publicity is closely related to advertising, but should never be thought of as replacing it. Rather, publicity supplements and fortifies advertising. Here are a few helpful principles:

1. A definite publicity schedule should be carefully drafted for the entire duration of the program. (See the section of the previous chapter dealing with scheduling.)

2. An essential part of publicity is personal contact. Get to know the city editors, department editors, columnists, etc. of the papers in the community.

3. Develop a master list of the sources of publicity in the community, including the daily papers, trade journals, house

EXHIBIT 28

SAMPLE ADVERTISEMENTS

General Display

**LEARNING FOR LIVING**

Keep improving yourself! Enroll now for informal evening courses for men and women. **Public Speaking**, vocabulary, conversation, voice and diction, parliamentary procedure, short story writing, rapid reading. **Salesmanship**, income tax, "Starting your own business," public relations. **Psychology of Social Relations**, photography, music, painting, dancing, contract bridge, marriage, dramatics.

**Start October 5** **Ask for catalog:**
**19 South La Salle St.** **FRAnklin 7466**

**CENTRAL YMCA SCHOOLS**

**ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM**

Forum

**TOWN MEETING of the LOOP**

**a forum for white-collar workers presents:**

WHAT CAN THE WHITE-COLLAR WORKER DO ABOUT:

**Jan. 21**—*"His Place in Today's Changing World"* . . . NORMAN THOMAS. **Feb. 4**—*"Housing for Everyone"*—Debate—Alderman ROBERT E. MERRIAM vs. JAMES C. DOWNS—Moderator, ARTHUR RUBLOFF. **Feb. 18**—*"The Cost of Living"*—Debate—MAYNARD KRUEGER vs. WILLIAM W. TONGUE.

**OTHER OUTSTANDING TOPICS:**
*Ending Racial Tensions, Education for Real Living, Making Marriage Work, Constructive Use of Atomic Energy, Making Opinions Count.*

The forums meet at 7:30 p.m., the first and third Wednesday of the month.
*For tickets and information write or call*
**CENTRAL YMCA, 19 S. La Salle St., FRA. 7466**

Special Display

(Finance Page)

**REAL ESTATE**

**PRACTICAL EVENING COURSES**

Principles, Contracts, Insurance, Appraisals, Property Management, Construction, Taxes, Economics, Sales. Tuesday or Thursday starting Sept. 20. Certificate. Est. 1923.
**Vet appr. Endorsed by Chi. Real Estate Bd.**
**REGISTER NOW** **CATALOG**
**19 South La Salle St.** **FRanklin 2-7466**

**CENTRAL YMCA SCHOOLS**

Classified Section

(Page 29)

**HOUSES**

MR. HOME BUYER-for a short course on "HOW to BUY or BUILD a HOME" see our AD under "INSTRUCTION." BEFORE you buy, investigate.
CENTRAL Y.M.C.A. Adult Educ. Program

(Page 33)

**INSTRUCTION**

HOW TO BUY OR BUILD A HOUSE
A six week course for prospective home owners. What to look for in a house, and how to get your money's worth. Co-sponsered by CHICAGO REAL ESTATE BOARD
Six Thursdays, 7:40 to 9:30 P.M. Starting April 22. Tuition, $15.
CENTRAL Y.M.C.A.
ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM
19 SO. LA SALLE FRA. 7466

(Run of paper)

**IMPROVE YOUR DANCING**

Informal classes start January 20. Men and women. Ten Tuesday nights. Fox trot, waltz, rhumba. Other courses: Psychology, Marriage, Speech, Hobbies, Politics, etc. Catalog.
**ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM**
**19 So. La Salle St.** **FRA. 7466**

**CENTRAL YMCA**

organs, labor unions' publications, church, club, and civic organization news sheets, professional society papers, etc. Each type should be classified separately and in a form convenient for addressing (3-by-5-inch cards are handy).

4. Develop a file of good action photographs that can be used with news stories.

5. Be on the alert for good human interest stories and invite an individual paper to assign a feature writer to cover it. If there are two or more newspapers serving the community, be sure to spread the stories among them.

6. Invite the press to newsworthy events—anniversary celebrations, special presentations, etc. It is legitimate to arrange such events with an eye to their publicity value.

7. Find out how particular papers prefer press releases to be written and write them that way. Make them short, to the point, and interesting. Write from the point of view of the reader and his interests. Give facts. If the paper is published weekly, be sure the release is delivered well in advance of the deadline set by the paper.

8. Use all sources of publicity, not just the big ones. Slant the story according to the special interests of the public served by each source.

9. Send in both general stories announcing the program as a whole and special stories featuring specific activities (these might be directed to departmental editors, such as woman's page, financial page, etc.).

10. Count on not more than 25 per cent of the releases ever getting into print.

11. Prepare the releases on 8½-by-11-inch typing paper of good quality, preferably sending each editor an original typed copy. Releases should be double or triple spaced, with about two inches left blank at the top for the editor to write in a headline.

12. Never try to trade advertising for publicity. Publicity should stand on its own merits as news. Good editors resent people who try to buy publicity with advertising.

13. Names make the news. It is frequently considered good practice to build up a committee chairman or program director as a newsworthy figure to symbolize the program to the public. It is also rewarding to build a news release around interesting events or achievements in the lives of individual leaders, instructors, or staff members.

Exhibit 29 shows an acceptable form for the preparation of releases. Note that the source of the release is given and that

release instructions are specified. (A definite date for release should be given only if damage would be done by publication before a set date; otherwise, leave the timing up to the editor.)

EXHIBIT 29

**SAMPLE PRESS RELEASE**

From: Malcolm S. Knowles
Director of Adult Education
Central Y.M.C.A.
19 South La Salle St., Chicago
FRanklin 7466

March 1, 1948
For release during March

(Leave about a two-inch space for the headline writer)

A new series of informal evening courses, designed especially for men and women who work in the Loop, will start on April 6 under the auspices of the Central Y.M.C.A. Adult Education Program, 19 South La Salle Street.

Under the title, *Learning for Living,* forty-eight different subjects will be offered in such real-life problems as human relations, leisure-time living, personal development, and getting ahead in business.

Of particular interest to people in business will be courses on "Promotion and Publicity," "Starting Your Own Business," "Accounting for Business and Professional People," "Effective Salesmanship," "Advanced Income Tax Clinic," and "Promotion to Supervisor."

Under the general heading of "Self-development" come a wide variety of subjects, including public speaking, voice and diction, conversation, rapid reading, personality development, the psychology of social relations, automobile driving, parliamentary procedure, short story writing, using good English, vocabulary building, and "Talking About World Affairs."

The *Learning for Living* program, which was started a year ago last fall, now has an enrollment of over 1,000 adult students from all walks of life. Most of them work in Chicago and come into the early evening courses after leaving work and having a quick supper, although some come from as far as Milwaukee, Naperville, and Gary. The student body is almost evenly divided between men and women, and all age groups are represented, with the largest number being in their late twenties and early thirties. The courses meet in comfortable, informal rooms, and enrollment is limited in most subjects to twenty or twenty-five, in order that the instruction can be highly individualized.

All courses meet one evening a week for a term of eight weeks, either from 6 to 7:30 o'clock or from 7:30 to 9 o'clock. Registration is held during the day and evening during March and early April on the second floor of the Central Y.M.C.A., 19 South La Salle Street. A catalog will be mailed upon request.

# # #

## Radio

Many of the principles given for newspaper advertising apply to radio advertising, with obvious adaptations. Brief spot announcements serve the same function as the small display advertisements in newspapers—to get people to write in for printed materials. Special skill is required for writing effective radio script, however, and the services of an expert should be obtained in developing a radio advertising campaign.

Publicity by radio offers unique opportunities of a type not possible through the printed word. For instance, one adult education institution has a regular weekly period on a local station in which round-table discussions are conducted by leaders and participants on the subjects treated in their courses. A forum program in the Midwest makes a wire recording of each of its programs for rebroadcasting later in the week, with an invitation to listeners to attend the next forum. In Louisville actual class sessions are broadcast, and listeners may enroll as regular students.

Other publicity ideas that have proved successful include "plugs" by commentators (one classical recording announcer lists the music appreciation courses of institutions in his city), interviews with staff members, instructors, or participants, and speeches by staff members or instructors.

## Direct Mail and Printed Materials

Direct mail is usually the most costly item in the educational promotional campaign in terms of time, energy, and money. Program directors report almost unanimously that most of their participants are obtained through direct mail. The chief purpose of all other promotion is to set the stage for printed materials. Direct mail is the "door-to-door salesman" for a program.

What kinds of printed materials should a program have? One generalization applies to all types of programs: Printed materials should reflect the quality of the program they represent. A high quality program should not be burdened with poor quality printing. The impression given by printed materials is the first impression people will usually have of a program.

The kind of printed materials depends upon the size and nature of the program. If it consists of an extensive list of activities, a folder or booklet is probably needed. If it is a single activity, a simple one-page flyer or even a letter might do. Here are some suggestions for each type of printed material.

### FOLDERS AND BOOKLETS

*What size should a folder be?* This will depend upon how much material must go into it, how the paper will cut, and what kind of envelope is to be used. A popular size for larger programs is six by nine inches, which requires an outsize envelope for mailing. Another popular size is four and one-half by six inches, which also requires a special envelope unless it is self-mailed. Probably the most extensively used size is four by nine inches, which will fit into a business envelope. Another common size is 3½ by 6¼ inches, which will fit into a correspondence envelope.

One advantage of the smaller booklet is that it is more convenient for the recipients to put into their pockets or handbags; if too small it is more likely to be overlooked and the type may have to be crowded. The mailing weight of the booklet must be considered in determining the size. If it goes over two ounces it cannot be sent by third class permit mail. These are problems that a printer can give good advice on.

*What should the style of the folder be?* Good layout, typography, and art work do much to increase the attractiveness and appeal of a folder. Expert advice should be obtained from a good printer or layout artist. If it costs extra it will be well worth the expense. Here are some general principles, however, that may be helpful:

1. The cover should attract attention (by means of special effects in type, reverse plate printing, illustrations, and color) but be dignified. It should tell enough of the idea of the program to cause a reader to want to turn the page, but the less printing on the cover the better.
2. Careful attention should be given to the selection of paper stock and ink. A good quality book stock is generally preferred if there is to be only printing or line drawings, but an enamel stock is required if photographs are to be reproduced. Using two colors of ink, one for captions and the other for body type,

makes a more appealing folder but is expensive. Somewhat the same effect can be accomplished by printing an attractive colored ink on tinted paper.

3. The type used in printing the folder should be large and readable. The type used in captions should be bold enough to stand out from the body type.

4. The material in the folder should be organized so that it is easy to understand and follow. Good layout will enhance good organization through the use of spacing, different type fonts and sizes, and indentation.

5. Line drawings or photographs will greatly increase the appeal of a folder, provided they are skillfully executed and in good taste.

6. There should be plenty of white space in the folder. It should never give the impression of being crowded.

Exhibits 30-34 illustrate many of these principles. (See pages 217-221.)

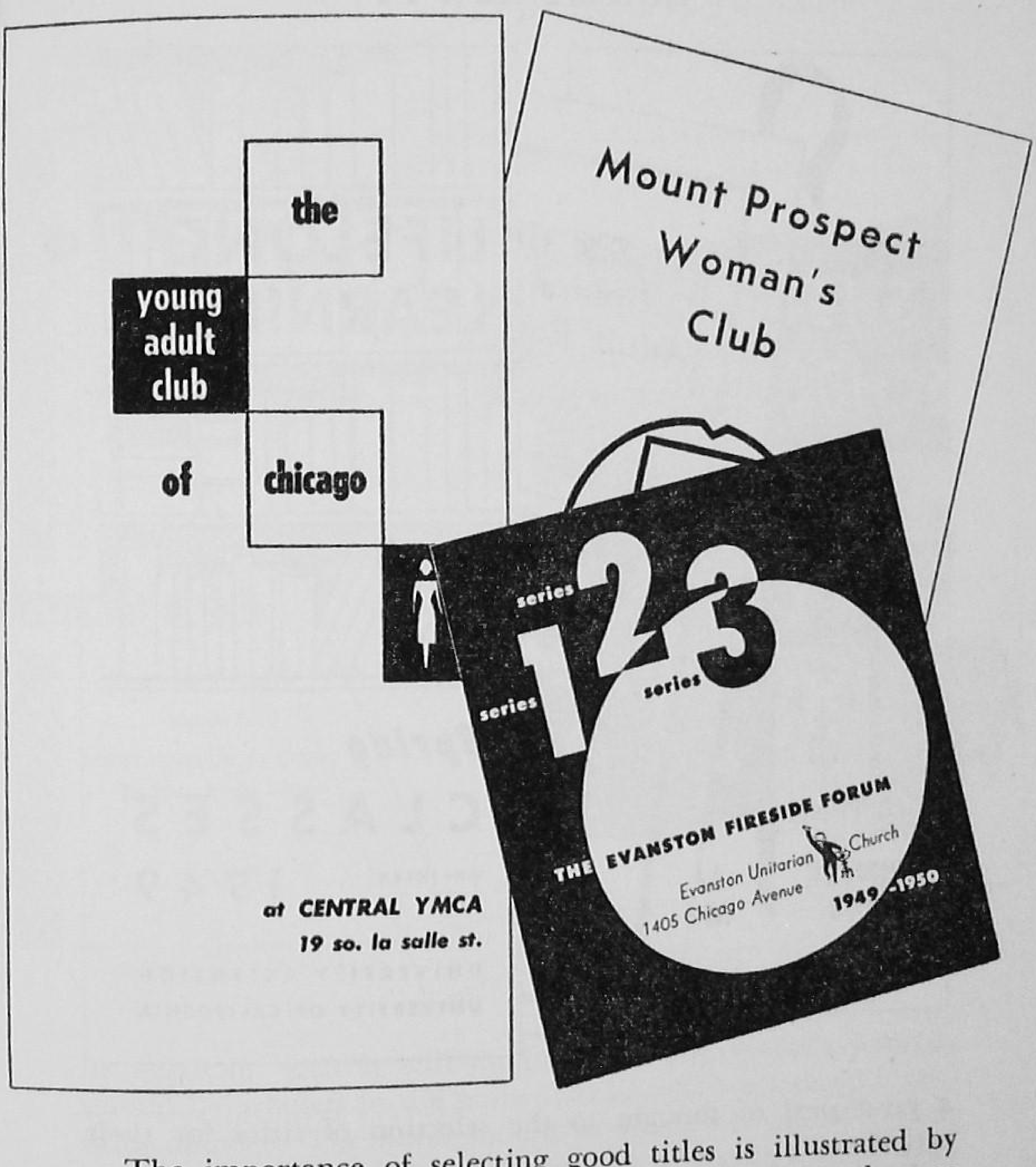
*What should the folder say?* The folder should give all the information a reader needs to understand the program and to enroll in it. Here is a check-list of questions that should be answered in a folder:

What is the purpose of the program?
What specific benefits can an individual expect to derive from it?
Who is sponsoring it?
What are the activities?
What kind of people is it designed to serve?
Who are the speakers, instructors, or leaders?
How much does it cost?
When do the activities take place? Where?
How does one affiliate?

The way in which a folder says these things is all-important. The very titles given to the activities can attract or repel, inform or misinform. The best titles generally (1) give an accurate idea of the substance of an activity, (2) have a suggestion of action in them, (3) are stated in terms of a problem or function, and (4) are personalized. For example, "Writing for Pleasure and Profit" is a better title for a course than "English Composition." "Starting Your Own Business" is better than "Elementary Business Management." "Will You Have to Fight Russia?" is a better forum title than "The Russian Foreign Policy."

EXHIBIT 30

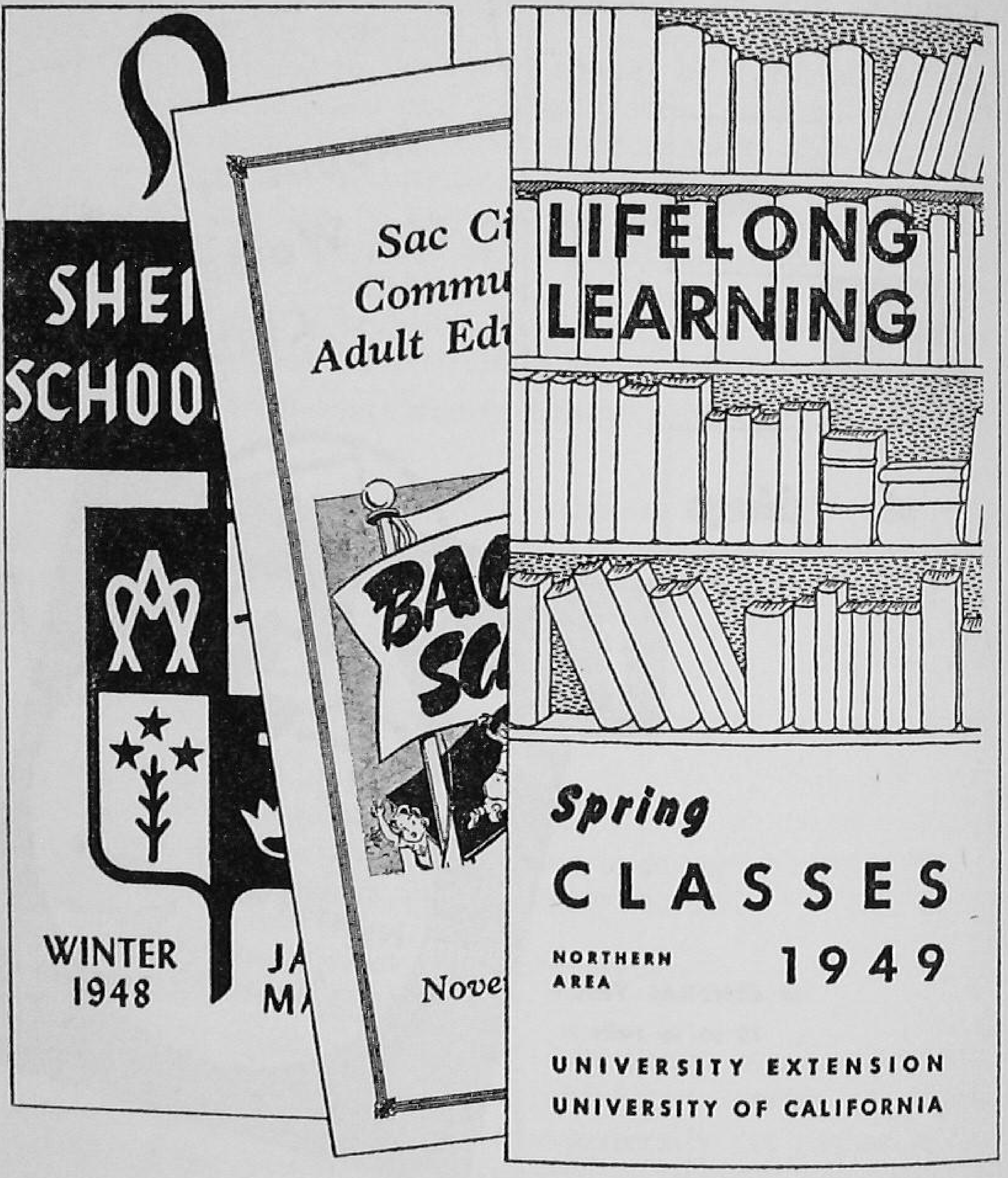
CLUB AND FORUM FOLDERS




The importance of selecting good titles is illustrated by numerous instances in which activities have failed under one title and have attracted large groups under another. Speakers have found that their audiences are usually small when their topics are dull. The most successful program directors give

EXHIBIT 31

CATALOGS OF INFORMAL COURSES,
ENVELOPE SIZE (4″ x 9″)

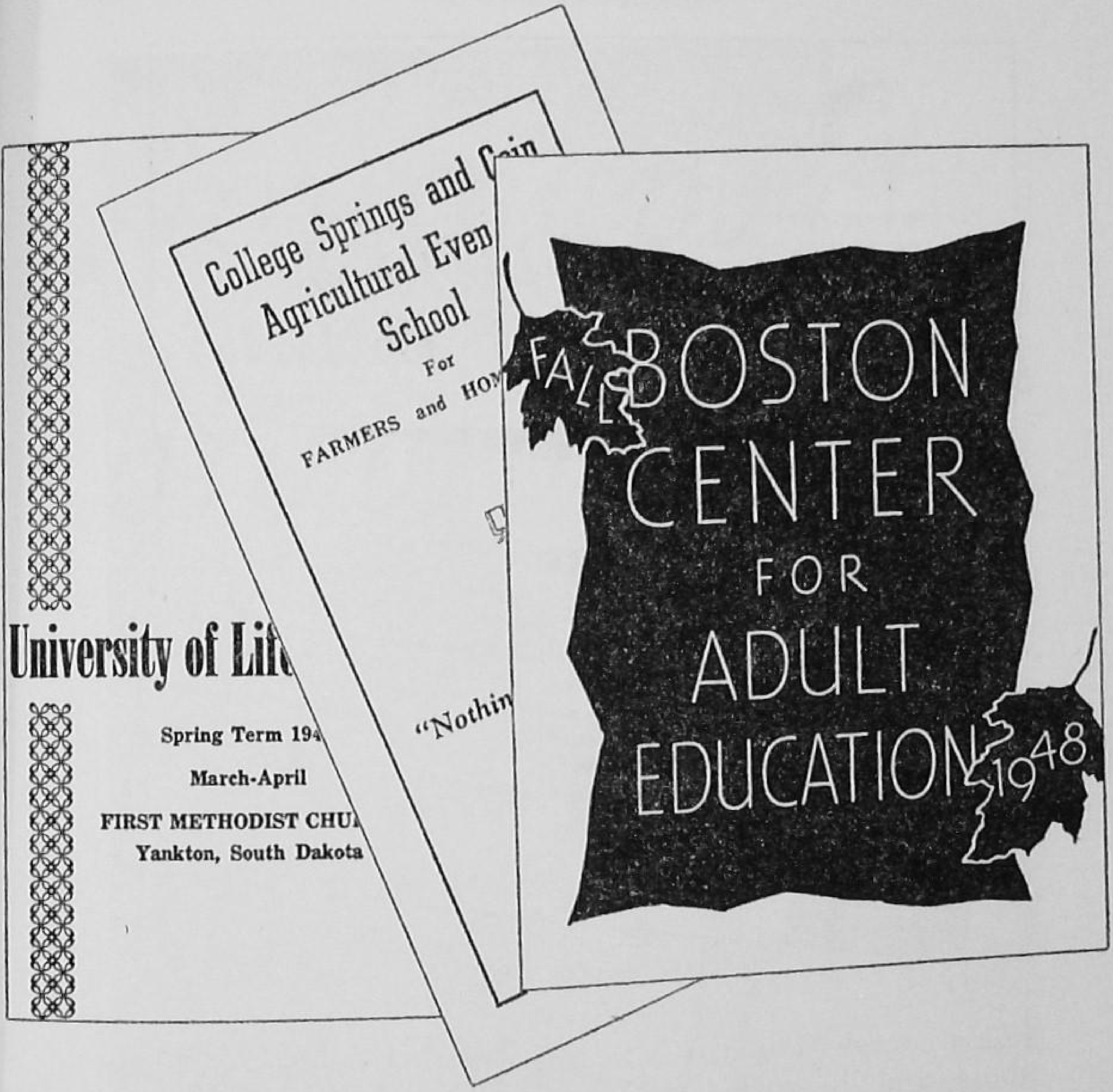



a great deal of thought to the selection of titles for their activities.

Equally important is the way an activity is described. The description should be informative and accurate; it should tell the reader exactly what to expect. But it should do more. It should tell him why he should take part in the activity, why

EXHIBIT 32

COURSE ANNOUNCEMENTS, ODD SIZED

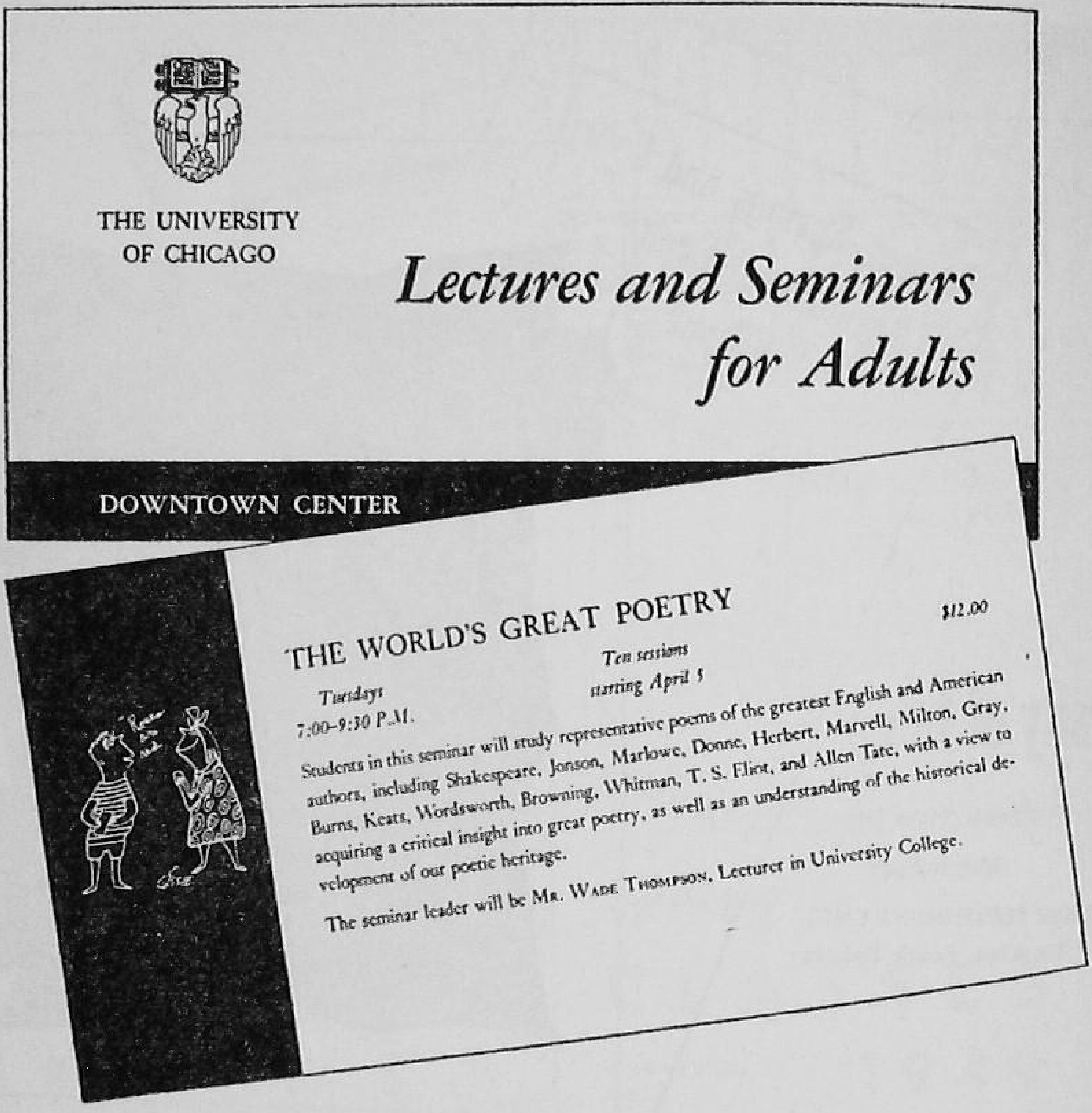



he needs it, what it will do for him. The reader's interest should be aroused to the point that he will want to do something about it. The words should be directed to an individual reader—"you" should appear several times in every description. This is what is known as sales copy, and its function is unashamedly to sell a worthy activity. Be sure, however, never to oversell; never promise results that cannot be achieved.

Here are two examples of actual descriptions of adult edu-

EXHIBIT 33

CATALOG OF INFORMAL COURSES, POCKET SIZE (3½" x 7")
Cover and Sample Page


THE UNIVERSITY
OF CHICAGO

*Lectures and Seminars for Adults*

DOWNTOWN CENTER

THE WORLD'S GREAT POETRY $12.00

*Tuesdays* *Ten sessions*
*7:00–9:30 P.M.* *starting April 5*

Students in this seminar will study representative poems of the greatest English and American authors, including Shakespeare, Jonson, Marlowe, Donne, Herbert, Marvell, Milton, Gray, Burns, Keats, Wordsworth, Browning, Whitman, T. S. Eliot, and Allen Tate, with a view to acquiring a critical insight into great poetry, as well as an understanding of the historical development of our poetic heritage.

The seminar leader will be MR. WADE THOMPSON, Lecturer in University College.

cation courses. The first is in line with the suggestions made above, and the second violates most of them. Which course would you enroll in?

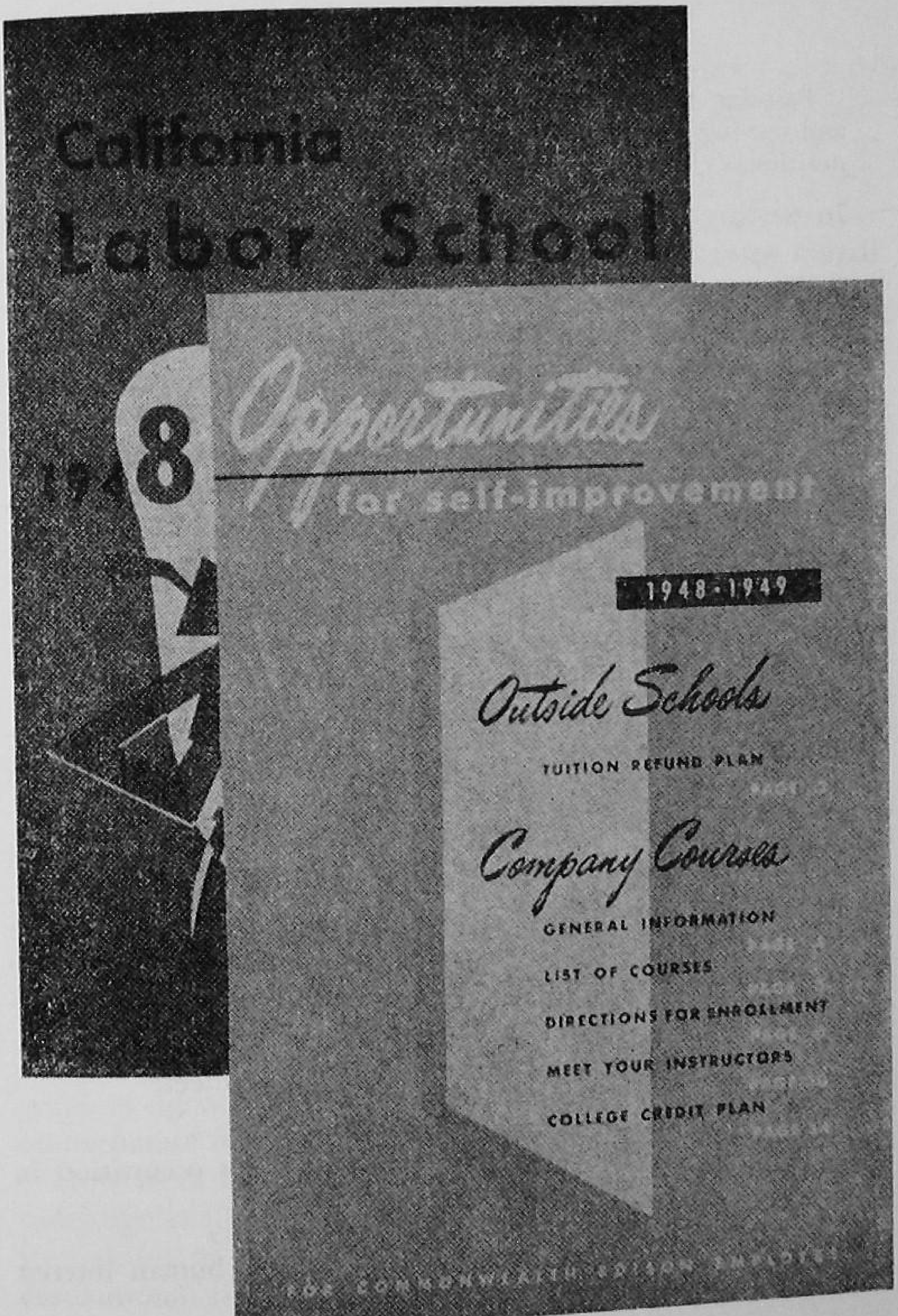
## PAINTING AS A HOBBY

One of the most satisfying, creative, and convenient of all hobbies, painting is ideally suited for those priceless hours of relaxation after a hard day at the office. It takes little energy, is easy to learn, and rewards with so much pleasure.

It does not matter whether you have ever before painted a picture; you will start out wherever your interest lies and will

EXHIBIT 34

CATALOGS OF INFORMAL COURSES, LARGE SIZE
(5½" x 8½")



be helped to develop your own style. You will learn the meaning of color, line, composition, light and dark, and how they combine to make your picture. You may try out different media: pastels, oils, water color, or charcoal.

ELEMENTARY PAINTING

Painting in oils and water color for recreation; color theory and mixing. Various methods of painting, handling colors compositionally, and individual criticism.

In writing activity descriptions, keep in mind that adults have a natural sales resistance to education. They have visions of rigidly formal classrooms, embarrassing questions by a domineering schoolmaster, difficult assignments, and dull lectures. The description must convey to them the friendliness and informality, the respect for personality, the practice of learning by doing, that characterize modern adult programs. Many adults are timid about their ability to keep up with the others, because they have been out of school so long. They must be reassured that they will be able to participate without embarrassment. (The "individual criticism" in the second illustration above must have scared away a lot of people.) Good copy writing involves putting oneself in the reader's shoes.

One of the strongest selling points in any program is—or should be—the leaders or faculty. Few folders and catalogs give adequate information about them. Most announcements give the names of the instructors, and nothing more. A few give some kind of occupational identification. Some even omit the name. A person reading about a strange program will feel that he is much less an "outsider" if the folder introduces him to the leaders in such a way that he feels he almost knows them. Ideally, the readers should know these things about each leader before they ever meet:

His name

Who he is—what his background is, what his occupation is, where he is employed

Why he is qualified to lead a particular activity

What kind of person he is. An anecdote or human interest story about him will help to "humanize" him.

The leaders might be described in each activity description, or they might be grouped together in a special part of the folder. An example of the latter practice is given in Exhibit 35.

### FLYERS

There are occasions when it is desirable to promote a single activity among large numbers of people with specialized interests. A simple, one-page flyer can be produced in quantity at low cost and distributed more widely than expensive folders. Exhibit 36 illustrates a flyer that was used to promote a series of reading courses through libraries and book stores. These flyers were left in quantity on reading tables, in bookcases, on counters, and in books. They proved to be very effective.

### FORM LETTERS

Form letters can perform two important functions in the promotion campaign: (1) As covering letters mailed with folders, directing the reader's special attention to certain activities, form letters focus the appeal of the folders on the known interests of particular groups of people. (2) As separate mailing pieces, form letters can make an inexpensive but personalized appeal to special groups of people.

Good form letters are usually short and concise. They should be written in a conversational tone and should refer directly to the particular interests or backgrounds of the group to which they are directed. They may be individually addressed, although it is difficult to match the typed heading with the mimeographed body, and the reader might resent someone's trying to fool him. It is probably better to state frankly in the heading the nature of the group for whom the letter is intended. Form letters should be individually signed, if possible, but a colored signature stamp is better than a mimeographed signature. Exhibits 37 and 38 illustrate both covering and separate form letters.

How form letters can be fitted into the general promotion campaign is illustrated in the direct mail schedule reproduced in Exhibit 24. Note that form letter No. 1 was sent to the institutional list, letter No. 2 to the personnel managers, etc.,

EXHIBIT 35

## DESCRIPTION OF FACULTY

# *Meet the Faculty*

We are proud to present the faculty of the Central YMCA Adult Education Program. There were three qualities which were uppermost in our minds in selecting them: professional proficiency—they must be tops in their fields; warm, dynamic personalities—the kind of people you'd like to meet and who can inspire you to do your best; and ability to teach creatively, enthusiastically, and in the spirit of "learning for living."

**LEN ARNOLD**—During eleven years as a newspaperman, Mr. Arnold held several important posts as reporter and editor, including that of assistant general news manager of International News Service. He has been a public relations counsel for more than ten years and during the war handled public relations for the U. S. Army in France. He is also known as a writer, a short story of his having appeared in the O. Henry Memorial Prize Collection of 1933-34.

**RUSSELL J. BECKER**—A dynamic young minister, Mr. Becker is completing advanced work at the University of Chicago in the integration of psychology and religion. His experience in both pastoral work and in counseling has convinced him of the importance of a clearly defined philosophy of life in the development of a happy, well-adjusted personality.

**OLIVER H. BOWN**—On the staff of the Counseling Center at the University of Chicago, Mr. Bown has had an active role in the development of the new techniques of personal and vocational counseling which he will use in his courses. He is now doing special research in psychotherapy and is training and supervising student counselors.

**ALBERT N. BROWN**—Formerly director of photography at the Ray School of Photography, Mr. Brown is now with the Chicago Lithographic Institute, in color reproduction. He has had extensive experience in teaching photography, especially the color process, in the U. S. Army Air Force and in commercial schools.

**DONALD A. CANAR**—Mr. Canar was trained in vocational guidance and personnel work at the University of Wisconsin and Northwestern University. He has served as a counselor and psychometrist in the public schools of Evanston and has had a varied background of industrial experience and in teaching. He is Associate Director of Adult Education at Central YMCA.

**LOUIS DEBOER**—As Education Secretary of the Illinois Society for Mental Hygiene, Mr. deBoer brings an understanding of mental health and prevention of mental ill health to the lay public, as well as to nurses, social workers and other professional persons. He is a lecturer at George Williams College and at the State Nursing Schools at Chicago, Jacksonville and Peoria. His wide experience in the field of Mental Hygiene includes work as director of the Church Federation's Boys Court Service. Mr. deBoer is editor of the Mental Health Bulletin.

[19]

EXHIBIT 36

SAMPLE FLIER

# *How fast do you read?*

Here is a quick test of your reading speed. Look at your watch and see how long it takes you to read about this course in *Rapid Reading and Comprehension.* Be sure you know what it says.

**START TIMING**

Reading is one of the most poorly developed of our daily skills. Few adults read at optimum rate or with effective interpretation. Actual tests show that the average high school graduate reads less than 250 words a minute, and comprehends only a part of the meaning. With appropriate instruction and practice, speed may be increased to 350 or 450 words per minute with increased attention to meaning. Think of what such improvement would mean in terms of your enjoyment of reading, your job efficiency, and your future absorption of knowledge.

In this course the results of several years of scientific investigation of good reading habits will be brought to bear in helping you to increase your speed in reading and to improve your comprehension. The instructor will aid you to analyze your reading habits and to formulate an individual plan of self-improvement. He will demonstrate techniques of efficient reading, and he will give you individual practice in rapid silent reading, accurate interpretation, skimming, and vocabulary growth.

**STOP**

Now, check your reading speed in the chart below:

SPEED CHART

| Time in secs. | 20 | 30 | 40 | 50 | 60 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Words per min. | 498 | 332 | 249 | 199 | 166 |
| | Fast | | Av. | | Slow |

You can be the judge as to whether you need one of these courses, under Dr. J. M. McCallister:

**RAPID READING AND COMPREHENSION**

(Stressing pleasure reading)

Tuesdays, 6 to 7:30 P.M. . . . starting October 5, for 10 weeks

or

**READING FOR STUDY**

(Stressing serious reading)

Tuesdays, 7:30 to 9 P.M. . . . starting October 5, for 10 weeks

Tuition, either course: $15 plus $2 for books.

**Enroll Now**

**CENTRAL YMCA**

**ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM**

**19 SOUTH LASALLE STREET, CHICAGO**

**TELEPHONE: FRAnklin 7466**

## EXHIBIT 37

## COVERING FORM LETTER

**School of Informal Education**

*Downtown Y.M.C.A. 1528 Locust*
*St. Louis 3, Missouri Central 1350*

December 20, 1949

Educational Committee

•

DR. HARRY J. O'NEILL, CHAIRMAN
HEAD, SCHOOL OF FINANCE
ST. LOUIS UNIVERSITY
PRESIDENT, ASSOCIATED FUND

MRS. W. C. SIMRALL
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
ADULT EDUCATION COUNCIL

MRS. L. MATTHEWS WERNER
PRESIDENT
LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS

L. CARTER WATLING
PRESIDENT
L. C. WATLING CO.

RUSSELL DEARMONT
ATTORNEY
MISSOURI PACIFIC R. R. CO.

DANIEL BISHOP
EDITORIAL CARTOONIST
STAR-TIMES PUBLISHING CO.

RICHARD R. KLAUKE
SALES DIRECTOR
KREY PACKING CO.

DR. JOHN J. KESSLER
PUBLIC RELATIONS COUNSELLOR

PAUL W. LASHLY
ATTORNEY AT LAW

WALDO P. JOHNSON
PRESIDENT
WEBSTER PUBLISHING CO.

•

ALFRED GRASSO
EDUCATIONAL DIRECTOR

SYLVIA SULLIVAN
REGISTRAR

Dear Sir,

SO THAT YOU MAY KNOW

Your company was one of 227 listed by our 616 students this Fall as their place of employment.

Several firms were represented by as many as fourteen employees - taking one or more "Y" courses!

THIS MEANS SOMETHING TO YOU

1. It means someone in your organization believes in personal advancement.

2. It means your employee has sacrificed both time and money for self-improvement.

3. It means the educational experience should reflect favorably on the job and for the firm.

YOU MAY NOW PROVIDE A SERVICE for others by suggesting they too look into the educational opportunities at the Downtown YMCA. There are 35 courses from which to choose, and the cost is nominal.

The enclosed folder has been designed to be used as a bulletin board display.

If you wish to distribute them personally to your employees, we will be glad to furnish them on request.

Sincerely yours,

Alfred Grasso
Alfred Grasso
Educational Director

AG/ss

as covering letters for printed materials. Separate form letters were sent to former painting students, former music students, and so forth.

EXHIBIT 38

## SEPARATELY MAILED FORM LETTER

March 30, 1948

*A Special Message*
*To Former Students of*
*"Rapid Reading and Comprehension"*

Have you noticed the new course listed in our spring term *Learning for Living* catalogue, "Reading for Study?" Since this course was planned as the next step for those who have taken Rapid Reading and Comprehension course, let me tell you a little more about it.

Dr. McCallister has discovered that many of his students were interested in learning how to do serious, study-type reading after they had covered all the material in the Rapid Reading course. Accordingly, he has spent a good deal of time in framing materials designed specifically to train you to be able to read serious materials faster and with better comprehension and to develop better study habits.

Since the most important adult education takes place when people read books at home, in the library, or at work, we feel that this new course is one of the most fundamental ones that we are offering.

While new students will be admitted to this course if they meet certain standards, we are depending primarily upon graduates of our Rapid Reading course to come in to the new course on Reading for Study.

We hope you will be with us again this year.

Yours very sincerely,

Director of Adult Education

### MAILING LISTS

The names and addresses of people who are potentially interested in a program can be accumulated from a variety of sources. Requests for printed materials that come in as a result of advertising, publicity, and direct mail constitute the very best kind of individual prospect mailing list. Present participants will often give the names and addresses of friends. Another fruitful source is the membership lists of various clubs, church organizations, business and professional societies, alumni associations, labor unions, and other groups. Frequently these organizations will not give out their membership lists, but will address envelopes at cost. It is possible, also, to purchase mailing lists from commercial letter services.

Mailing lists should be separated in such a way that it will be easy to address envelopes according to different categories. The following categories have been developed by one institution:

Public service institutions
Selected personnel managers
High school principals
University registrars
Former participants (of this program)
Current prospects
Public libraries
Social agencies
Daily newspapers
Community newspapers
Industrial house organs
Labor union papers
Protestant ministers
Catholic priests
Members of Adult Education Council
Members of University Club
Book stores
Nurses' homes
Members of Chambers of Commerce
Women's clubs
P.T.A.'s

To be most effective, mailing lists must be continually cross-checked to avoid duplication, and changes in status or address should be entered as they occur. The whole process of keeping and using mailing lists will be greatly simplified if the lists are transferred to addressograph plates.

METHODS OF MAILING

There are several methods of mailing printed materials. Booklets and folders can be printed in such a way that the address can be fixed directly to the piece and it can be self-mailed for one cent without an envelope. Or printed material may be inserted into a special permit envelope, a flap of which is removable for inspection purposes, and mailed for one cent per piece, provided it weighs less than two ounces. Both of these methods require special handling and bundling and may be delayed in delivery.

Another method is to use a regular business envelope with the flap tucked in instead of sealed. This will go third class for two cents if two ounces or under. Larger supplies of materials may be mailed third or fourth class in large manila enve-

lopes or wrapped packages. First class mailing, at three cents per ounce, is more expensive but more efficient and convenient.

The opinion is sometimes expressed that third class mailings are not read by the recipients. It seems to be the consensus of direct mail experts, however, that if the cover of the piece or the envelope in which it is inserted is appealing, the material will be read. They indicate, in addition, that a piece which is enclosed in an envelope is more effective than self-mailing pieces, and that a covering letter will further increase the pulling power of a folder.

Without question the great majority of all adult program materials are mailed third class. Highly personalized form letters and materials sent to "prestige" lists should, however, be mailed first class.

The local postmaster is the best source of advice on the proper method of mailing in a given situation.

## Posters, Displays, and Exhibits

Posters can be used to attract attention and to obtain prospects. One of the most prolific sources of names and addresses for the Central Y.M.C.A. of Chicago is a printed poster about 9 by 14 inches which splashed the name of the program across the top in reverse plate and then listed the types of activities. A small supply of business reply post cards requesting the institution to send a folder was placed in a slit at the bottom. This poster was placed on bulletin boards in offices and factories, libraries, public buildings, clubs, and social agencies. This poster is reproduced in Exhibit 39.

Individually painted posters can be used to arouse interest in special activities among present participants. A good quality of workmanship in layout, copy writing, and art work is as important in a poster as in a piece of printing.

Displays can sometimes be placed in a window, lobby, or other area frequented by the public, with good effect. To arouse interest in a lecture series on "How to Buy a House," for instance, models of various types of houses were obtained from a real estate company and set on tables in the lobby of the sponsoring institution. Descriptive folders were placed on the table with the display.

EXHIBIT 39

BULLETIN BOARD POSTER

Exhibits of work done by present participants in such activities as arts and crafts, painting, sewing, and photography not only arouse the interest of the spectators, but help to give them the feeling that maybe they can do it, too.

## Personal Contacts in the Community

Usually we do not think of our relationships with other groups in the community as a part of the promotion campaign. Personal contacts are, however, a very effective instrument of promotion. Every time a staff member, committee member, leader, or student, appears at a meeting or makes a speech as a representative of an organization he is, in effect, advertising the program. Larger institutions frequently seek out and schedule speaking engagements and arrange organizational or committee memberships for their staff as conscious promotion strategy. A personal contact campaign can be planned almost as definitely as a publicity campaign, and as much care should be taken to see that the proper impression is made.

## Enlisting the Support of Participants

A body of satisfied customers is a most effective instrument of promotion. Word-of-mouth advertising of people who have participated in a program and are enthusiastic about it is the most important single factor. Numerous studies of how people first learned of a program list "friends" at the top. How can the support of present (and past) participants be cultivated?

The first requirement is, of course, that they be enthusiastic about the program. Obviously, this means that the program has to be good. But more than that, it means that people must be guided into the right activities. Regardless of how good a program is, if it is not what an individual wants and needs, he will not be satisfied with it. It is a mistake to rely on the printed materials to guide people into the right activities—even the most experienced program directors are continually amazed at how differently an activity description can be interpreted by different people. The most satisfactory solution to this problem is to provide competent counselors—committee members, staff members, and former participants can be trained—during the registration period.

In addition, the participants should be injected with some of the spirit and philosophy of the program if they are to interpret it well to others. Through printed materials, interpretation during registration, and experiences in committee work, participants can be given a better understanding of the purposes and program of the organization. Every opportunity should be given to participants to get a sense of belonging. This may be accomplished by inviting them into membership in the organization, by giving them leadership responsibilities, by offering them opportunities to serve on committees and councils, and by inviting them to special events and ceremonial occasions. Asking participants periodically to fill out interest questionnaires is another method of increasing their sense of participating.

If the only experience an individual has had in an organization is a public speaking class, that is the only thing he can really advertise. But if he has acquired an intimate knowledge of the organization as a whole, and has a feeling of belonging to it, he can advertise the entire program.

Present participants can be asked directly to help spread the word. Toward the end of a series they can be asked to write on small cards the names and addresses of friends they think would be interested in receiving the announcement of the next series. Or, when present participants are mailed their copies of the new announcements, an extra copy can be enclosed and the covering letter can ask them to pass it along to someone else in their neighborhood or at work. Both devices have produced excellent results in actual practice.

## The Telephone Committee

A potent instrument of promotion that should never be overlooked is an organized telephone campaign. In a small organization this may be just about the only promotion that is needed to draw a group of the desired size together. But even in large organizations a few dozen telephone calls may mean the difference between failure and success.

A telephone campaign can be organized by enlisting the services of a large enough number of people so that no one person

has too heavy a burden. Each person is given a list of the names and numbers of people he is to call. These names may be either of members of the organization or prospects, and the call may be made either as a reminder or as an invitation.

This technique injects a degree of personal interest and interaction into the promotion campaign that cannot be duplicated through printed materials.

## Evaluating A Promotion Campaign

It would be very helpful to know exactly what results are being produced by the various elements of the promotion campaign, in order that time and money could be spent where it would do the most good. There is, unfortunately, no completely satisfactory way to evaluate a promotion campaign. But there are several methods of getting good clues. For instance, newspaper advertisements can be "keyed." In newspaper A, the advertisements can say, "Write for catalog A" and in newspaper B, "Write for catalog B." Some newspapers object to this device because the results are never very reliable. Many people know it is a key and refuse to specify "A" or "B." Much the same procedure can be followed on some direct mail pieces. Flyers or business reply post cards can be marked to indicate where they were displayed when they were picked up. The results of this method are likely to be more accurate in direct mail than in newspaper advertising, since the key is fixed to the printed material, but it involves a lot of extra labor.

Another method of tabulating the sources of information about the program is to ask people at the time of registration where they first heard about it. Information obtained in this way is probably the least reliable of all, but it may give some interesting clues that can be checked against other data. Usually considerable time has elapsed between the person's first learning about the program and time of registration, and he will make a guess at how he first heard about it. Several times people have actually brought in clipped ads or news stories that appeared only in one paper, and have maintained that they clipped them from another.

It is fairly easy to check the effectiveness of the promotion

in a given company or place of residence merely by tabulating the places of employment or residence on the students' registration cards. This information is, of course, highly accurate.

There is no foolproof method of determining the exact number of sales made by any single instrument of promotion. In a given situation there may be clues indicating that one or another of the media is yielding better results than the other. But it would be a mistake to assume that any phase of the promotion campaign could thereby be eliminated. It is the total impact of all phases that produces results, and every phase supports every other phase in making this impact. For example, a printed announcement may be more meaningful to a given recipient because he has recently seen a newspaper advertisement that established the prestige of the organization in his mind, or because a friend spoke to him about it, or because he saw a poster.

Every adult education worker should evaluate the results of his promotion efforts periodically, and should constantly seek to improve his promotional skills. The promotion of adult educational activities is not only essential to the success of the activities themselves, but is important to the extension of adult education as a force in our society.

# PART FOUR

# Evaluation

# 11

# EVALUATING PROGRAMS OF ADULT EDUCATION

## The Meaning and Purpose of Evaluation

Evaluating a program means, simply, determining how good a job has been done. It is the process of judging the worth of an enterprise according to some definite scale of values.

What have we accomplished during the past year? What have been our successes and failures? What are our strengths and weaknesses? To what extent did we achieve our goals and the goals of those we serve? What are the next steps that we should take? These are the kinds of questions we ask ourselves when we evaluate a program.

Evaluation is an essential part of the organizational process, and those organizations that neglect it risk decay. Its chief purpose is to point the way to progress. It enables us to make our work more effective. It forces us to test our goals, our methods, and our procedures against needs and accomplishments, and to change them in the light of our findings. It provides a sound basis for future planning.

## The Process of Evaluation

### WHEN TO EVALUATE

Evaluation actually goes on all the time. Some kinds of judgments are being made continuously about the worth of a program. Participants are constantly making complaints or paying compliments. Teachers and leaders are never without feelings about how well or how poorly things are going. The directors of a program are sensitive both to these judgments

and to their own feelings. This continuous but almost unconscious evaluation results in many on-the-spot improvements. But it does not serve the same purpose as a systematic, conscious evaluation procedure.

Just as an automobile owner finds it useful to have the motor checked at specific intervals, and a physician finds it best to require an annual physical examination of each patient, so it is most effective for a program director to set a definite time for evaluation. At the very least there should be an annual evaluation, preferably at the end of the program year. In many situations it also may be desirable to have less intensive evaluations at set intervals during the year, such as at the end of each term or series.

### WHO SHOULD EVALUATE

Every person who is in a position to make any kind of judgment about a program should be brought into the evaluation process in some way. One or more of the following groups are usually involved, depending upon the nature of the program:

1. *The participants.* The judgments of students, group members, or audience participants can be obtained from them individually through interviews or questionnaires. Or they may be funneled through a representative council.

2. *The leaders or instructors.* Those who are directly responsible for the growth of the participants are, next to the participants themselves, in the best position to judge the results achieved. These judgments also can be obtained individually through interviews or written forms, or through group meetings of the faculty or leaders' corps.

3. *The program director and staff.* Those who are responsible for the administration of a program are in a key position to observe the results of the program as a whole. They will naturally make judgments of their own and report them in staff meetings, committee meetings, and written reports. In addition to making their own judgments, however, the staff members will initiate and facilitate the collection of judgments from all other sources and will compile them into a composite evaluation.

4. *The directing committee.* Because it is responsible for establishing objectives and policies, the directing committee is particularly concerned with evaluation. If it is to be in a position to determine new objectives and policies intelligently it should have the opportunity both to observe results directly and to examine the judgments from all other sources.

5. *Outside experts.* It is frequently desirable to call in specialists from the universities, co-ordinating councils, and other sources to assist in the evaluation process. Controlled observations of classroom procedure by graduate students from teacher training institutions have often yielded valuable information. Many kinds of organizations are required to submit information to higher authorities, such as state and national headquarters, community councils, and contributors of funds, in order that these authorities may make evaluations of their own.

## Yardsticks of Evaluation

The very act of evaluating implies that there is some scale of values by which a program will be measured. Two kinds of yardsticks generally serve as a basis of measurement: (1) those that measure the fulfillment of objectives, and (2) those that measure efficiency of operation.

### FULFILLMENT OF OBJECTIVES

Evaluation is meaningless except in relation to objectives, for it is the objectives that determine the values on which the program is to be based. The first question that always must be asked in the evaluation process is, "What did we want to accomplish?" The next part of the process is concerned with the question, "To what extent did we actually accomplish the things we set out to accomplish?" Only after answers have been found to this question can the evaluators intelligently consider such final questions as "Were these the right objectives?" "Are there other objectives we should strive toward next?"

The yardsticks by which the fulfillment of objectives can be measured fall into distinct categories:

1. *Those concerned with outcomes for individuals.* Every educational program has as one objective, explicitly or im-

plicitly, the production of certain changes in human behavior. The nature of the yardsticks used to measure these changes depends upon the nature of the changes sought. One set of yardsticks is required to measure changes in knowledge, another for changes in the various kinds of attitudes, and still others for skills, appreciation, and understanding. There is no master list of yardsticks available for all kinds of changes in all situations. Specific yardsticks have to be devised for each situation to measure the outcomes desired. For example, the outcomes produced by training in public speaking might be measured by answers to such questions as the following:

How much more skillfully can the individual outline speeches?
How much more confidence does he have in his ability to speak before an audience?
What faults of pronunciation have been eliminated?
How much improvement has there been in diction?
To what extent has the individual developed broader interests?

2. *Those concerned with the development of the organization.* There are more or less clear objectives toward which every organization is striving in its own development. Some typical organizational objectives, and measures by which their fulfillment can be judged, are as follows:

| *Objective* | *Yardsticks* |
| --- | --- |
| Development of an active, participating membership of a certain size and with certain characteristics | How many new members have been recruited?<br>To what extent have they accepted organizational responsibility?<br>Were they the kind of people desired? |
| Development of a sound basis of financing | Did the budget balance?<br>Was sufficient community support enlisted?<br>Were expenses adequately controlled? |
| Achievement of recognized status in the community | What do people think of the organization?<br>How well was the public informed about its achievements? |

3. *Those concerned with program content.* It would be almost impossible to plan a program of informal education without having in mind specific objectives as to the content of the program. One objective may be to provide a certain quantity of meetings, courses, or other program units. The measure in this case would be a purely numerical counting. Another objective may be to provide offerings that cover a given scope of subject matter (such as a minimum of one lecture, forum, or course in each of ten fields of learning). The measure of the fulfillment of this objective would involve simply a comparison of the actual offerings with the original listing of subject matter fields. Probably the over-all yardstick for the evaluation of program content for most organizations would be, "Is the program balanced and well-rounded and did it meet the needs and interests of all the participants?"

4. *Those concerned with service in the community.* Many organizations have among their objectives the providing of some kinds of service to the community, over and above their services to individual participants. These services may be fairly direct, such as financial contributions, donation of the services of staff workers or members, and so forth. Evaluations for this kind of objective would be in terms of dollars, man-hours, or other very definite units of measurement. On the other hand, the services to the community may be more indirect, such as the influencing of public opinion (i.e. against alcohol or in favor of certain legislation). Evaluation of the fulfillment of this kind of objective is much more difficult. Indeed, most organizations that emphasize these indirect services seem to live mostly on faith that their work is producing results.

### EFFICIENCY OF OPERATION

Efficiency of operation is closely related to the fulfillment of objectives. Through the functioning of an organization, outcomes are produced for individuals, organizational development takes place, program content is built, and the community is served. Operational efficiency requires, however, quite a different set of measures. The efficiency of operation of an

organization can be measured in terms of (1) administrative organization and procedures, (2) committee functioning, (3) staff functioning, (4) use and maintenance of physical facilities, and (5) effectiveness of leadership and teaching methods.

### ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURES

The effectiveness of the administrative organization and procedures can be measured by such questions as the following:

1. Is there a clear distinction between policy making and execution?
2. Is there a logical allocation of functions in accordance with a general plan of organization?
3. Are there clear and definite assignments of authority and responsibility?
4. Is there effective co-ordination of all organization units and staff members?
5. Are the office services adequate in quantity and quality? Does correspondence get answered promptly, is filing efficient, etc.?
6. Are inquiries and registrations handled promptly, courteously, and in an orderly fashion? Is there a minimum of waiting and red tape?
7. Are records accurate, as comprehensive as necessary, as simple as practicable, and accessible?

### COMMITTEE FUNCTIONING

Some of the measures of the efficiency of committee functioning are illustrated by the following:

1. Are the committee's functions clearly stated and known by all members?
2. Does the committee meet frequently enough to fulfill its responsibilities?
3. Does the committee function well as a group—does it accept responsibility as a group, think co-operatively, and make decisions efficiently?
4. Are the individual committee members personally involved in the organization—do they subscribe to its objectives, do they give active service?
5. Are services to the committee adequate? Are notices of meetings sent in time; are adequate records kept; is there a follow-up on decisions?

STAFF FUNCTIONING

The effectiveness of staff functioning can be measured by such questions as these:

1. Is there a spirit of teamwork rather than rivalry?

2. Is there creative executive leadership?

3. Is the staff personnel adequate in number to the needs of the program? Are all necessary staff services performed?

4. Are all members of the staff qualified for their respective jobs?

5. Are there job descriptions for all jobs—do all staff members know their responsibilities?

6. Are there good working conditions, adequate salaries, and sound personnel policies and practices?

7. Is there good morale among the staff?

USE AND MAINTENANCE OF PHYSICAL FACILITIES

Measures of the efficiency of operation of the physical plant are of the following type:

1. Is there adequate space for the kind of program required to achieve the objectives of the organization?

2. Is the space suitable, in terms of location, decoration, and furnishings?

3. Are the physical facilities maintained in good condition in regard to heat, light, ventilation, and sanitation?

4. Is there adequate administrative and instructional equipment? Is it properly safeguarded and maintained in good condition?

5. Is provision made for the replacement or renewal of physical facilities before they deteriorate to such an extent as to interfere with efficiency of operation?

6. Is the space and equipment used as close to capacity as is practicable?

EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADERSHIP AND TEACHING METHODS

The efficiency of leaders and teachers is, of course, reflected in the degree to which the aim of producing outcomes for individuals is achieved. Some objective yardsticks can be used, however, to appraise the efficiency of the leaders and teachers directly:

1. Is attendance at the meetings maintained according to a normal pattern?

2. Are group objectives clearly defined? Are they attained?

3. Are the needs and interests of the participants recognized and fulfilled?

4. Are the instructors and leaders familiar with all possible methods and materials, and do they choose those that are most effective for each situation?

5. Are new methods being sought and tested?

6. Do leaders and teachers carry out their administrative responsibilities efficiently?

7. Do leaders and teachers evaluate their results frequently?

## Methods of Evaluation

A wide variety of methods can be used for obtaining the information necessary to evaluate results. Most of these methods are based on the personal judgments of people, and therefore are subject to error, bias, and difference in outlook. Many instruments of evaluation are designed to measure only certain kinds of results. A thoroughgoing evaluation, therefore, requires the use of a combination of methods.

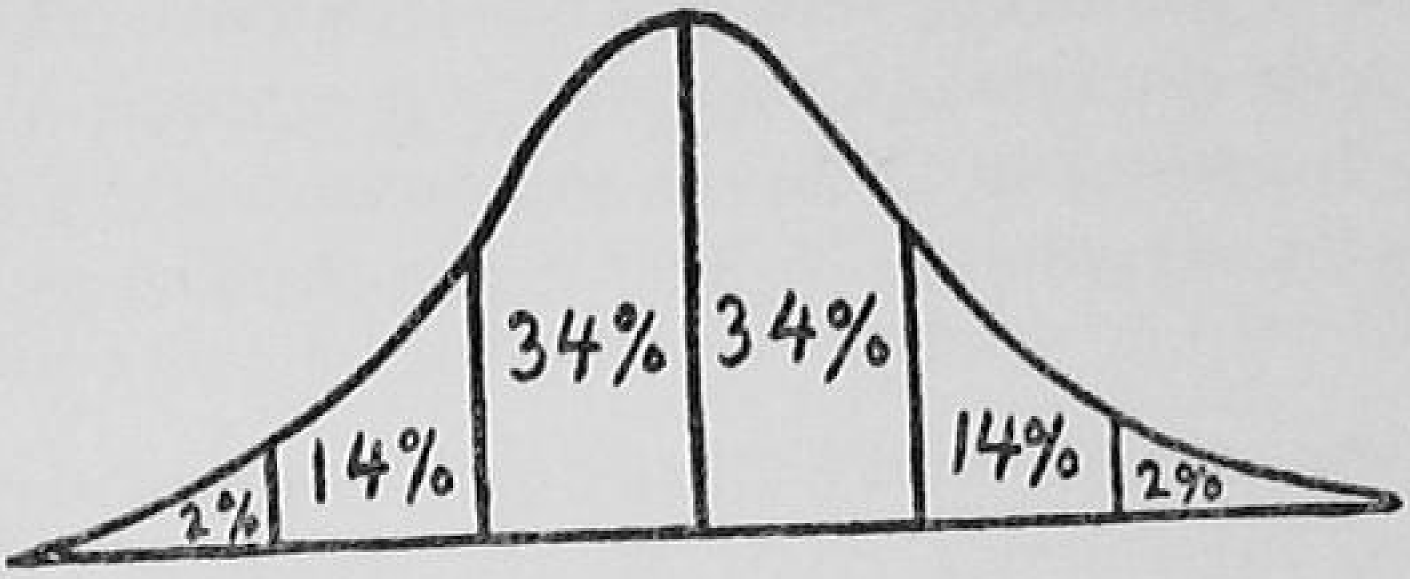
### OBTAINING THE REACTIONS OF PARTICIPANTS

The opinions and feelings of the participants in a program, while they are completely subjective, are a primary source of information on which to base an evaluation. Experienced leaders recognize that in almost any group of people there is a certain proportion of chronic complainers to whom nothing is satisfactory, as well as a certain proportion of "Pollyannas" to whom everything is wonderful.

One of the most helpful concepts for those who have to weigh judgments is that of the *curve of normal distribution* (or *normal probability*). This curve describes the probable distribution of phenomena and traits in an unselected population—or according to pure chance. It indicates that about 34 per cent of the cases (in terms of such characteristics as height and weight, or intelligence, or emotional adjustment, or almost any other physical or psychological trait) will fall within one standard deviation above or below the mean. Two standard deviations will mark off another 14 per cent on each side of the mean, and three standard deviations, another 2 per cent. A typical curve of normal distribution is illustrated in Exhibit 40.

EXHIBIT 40

CURVE OF NORMAL DISTRIBUTION




While there are few situations in adult education in which the selection of participants is according to pure chance, there is a general tendency for the characteristics of our participants to be grouped more or less as depicted by the curve of normal distribution. This being so, a program director does not become disturbed when he receives a "normal" number of negative reactions. Nor does he rejoice unduly when he receives a "normal" amount of praise. According to the curve of normal distribution, about 2 per cent of the participants will probably be extremely negative and 2 per cent will be extremely complimentary; about 14 per cent will be fairly negative and 14 per cent will be quite enthusiastic; and about 68 per cent will be moderately responsive. Thus, although a conscientious program director will respect the criticisms of the habitually negative people and will try to eliminate the causes of their discontent, he will not become alarmed until the proportion of criticism goes above 16 per cent.

Some practical methods for obtaining the judgments of the participants as to the value of the program are:

1. *Interviews.* There are many opportunities for talking more or less informally with participants during office contacts, in the halls, and in the meeting rooms. Alert staff workers, leaders, and teachers can obtain valuable information by sounding out the participants on these occasions. In many instances there are opportunities for more formal and deeper interviews through personal counseling. This method will yield systematic and significant information about the feelings and opinions of participants, as well as actual data about changes in behavior.

2. *A representative council.* When it is possible to have group discussion by representatives of the various activities, a more comprehensive picture of how the participants feel about the program can be obtained. Usually such a council has planning and service functions in addition to responsibility for evaluating, so that its members are able to translate their ideas into action.

3. *Questionnaires.* Various kinds of questionnaires can be used for obtaining information from the participants, ranging from those seeking specific data about behavior to those seeking general opinions. As a rule, the more specific the questions are the more reliable the information will be, especially if they are directed at measuring actions rather than obtaining opinions. ("What things do you *do* as a result of your learning?" is likely to produce better answers than "What do you *think* you learned?")

Exhibit 41 illustrates a simple form that is used to detect the feeling tone of the participant at the end of each meeting. It gives the leader or instructor some clues as to how well the interest of the group is being maintained.

A more complex questionnaire is illustrated in Exhibit 42. This form is used in a program of organized courses and is distributed at the last meeting of each term.

EXHIBIT 41

## END-OF-MEETING EVALUATION SLIP

ACTIVITY ______________________ Date ______________

Would you give us just one minute of your time to let us know how you feel about tonight's meeting? It will help us in improving our program.

Please *circle* the phrase that best describes how you feel:

1. I think that in this session I learned:
   *a great deal* *quite a lot* *some* *a little* *nothing*
2. On the whole, tonight's session was:
   *excellent* *pretty good* *average* *poor* *no good*
3. I am leaving this meeting feeling:
   *enthusiastic* *encouraged* *all right* *disappointed* *frustrated*
4. As of now, the activity interests me:
   *intensely* *quite a bit* *somewhat* *a little* *not at all*

Comments:

EXHIBIT 42

## STUDENT EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

### Adult Education Program

In planning our next series of courses we feel that it is extremely important to know how our students feel about the present courses—how well we met your needs and how we might better meet them. Will you, therefore, take a few minutes to answer thoughtfully the following questions?

Name of Course: __________________Instructor ________________________

Day and time of meeting ____________Term ________________________

1. What was your purpose when you originally entered this course? What did you hope to get out of it?
2. What did you actually get out of it? (Make as specific a list as possible)
3. Did the course cover all the points in which you are interested? ________ If not, what additions would you suggest?
4. What do you consider to be the strong points and weak points in the teaching methods employed by the instructor?
   a. Strong points: (state why)
   b. Weak points: (state why)
5. Has the course resulted in your doing anything differently than you did before taking it? Illustrate:
6. What suggestions have you for improvement in the following areas:
   a. Administration:
   b. Physical facilities:
   c. Selection of courses:
   d. Teaching methods:
7. What new courses would you suggest?
8. Additional comments (Complete on back of sheet)

Questionnaires have several limitations. They cannot be used too often without interfering with activity and arousing the resentment of the participants. They are probably most reliable when the name of the participant is not requested, but this anonymity prevents cross checking. Their value depends largely on their phrasing, and great care must be exercised to make them clear, concise, and specific. There is always danger that the answers on questionnaires will be misinterpreted.

4. *Instructional procedures.* Many opportunities arise in the course of the teaching or leading of a group to obtain more or less continuous evaluations by the group members. These opportunities range from brief written quizzes to group dis-

cussion. A technique that has recently come into vogue is reporting by an objective group observer.

MEASURING CHANGES IN INDIVIDUALS

The final measure of the value of any educational program is the actual changes it produces in individuals. All methods of evaluation are attempts to gather information that will give clues as to what changes have been produced, but most of these methods are dependent upon mere guesses, opinions, and subjective judgments. In many situations, however, it is possible to obtain fairly accurate and objective measurements of changes that are taking place. The following are the most common devices for measuring change:

1. *Tests.* The various kinds of tests for measuring knowledge, skill, attitude, appreciation, and understanding were discussed briefly at the end of Chapter 3. By giving a test at the beginning of a learning period and repeating it in an equivalent form at the end, the changes that have taken place as a result of the learning experience can be quite accurately measured. It is often desirable to follow up with a third test several months or years after the second test to determine how much of the gain has been retained as a permanent part of the individual's equipment.

2. *Case studies.* By obtaining a rather complete record of an individual's life pattern at the time he enters a learning experience, and adding to it continuously until after he has completed the experience, it is possible to detect significant changes —especially in the areas of adjustment, outlook, and habits. Complete case studies require so much time and such skilled interviewers that they are practicable only for a sample group of the total participant body. Case studies have the advantage, however, of giving a much better picture of the effect of the learning experience on the whole person than do any of the more specific methods of evaluation.

3. *Control groups.* One of the most reliable methods of obtaining accurate estimates of change in experimental research is the use of control groups. These are groups that have the same general characteristics as the groups with whom experi-

mental work is being done, but that are isolated from the forces being tested. For example, to measure the extent to which training in human relations improved the adjustment of individuals, the training can be given to an experimental group and withheld from an equivalent control group. By testing the adjustment of the individuals in both groups before and after the training period, it is possible to determine if any changes were produced in the experimental group that did not occur in the control group. In this way any changes that might occur through influences outside the training are prevented from entering into the evaluation.

4. *Production records.* A device used frequently in industry to measure the results of training programs is the comparison of production records before and after training. Thus, if a workman turns out fifty units before starting a training program and turns out seventy after completing it, there is strong evidence that the training produced changes, provided other factors remained constant.

### OBTAINING INFORMATION FROM OBSERVERS

Information concerning the worth of a program can also be obtained through skillful observation by others than the participants. The people who are in the best position to observe results achieved are the leaders or instructors. Their great shortcoming as observers, however, is that they are personally involved in the outcome of the evaluation, so that it may be difficult for them to be objective. They may tend to overlook instances in which desired changes are not being produced and to emphasize minor successes. While this limitation must be recognized, there is no doubt that the observations of the leaders and teachers are an essential source of data for evaluating a program. In addition, involving the faculty in the evaluation process is an excellent method for stimulating self-analysis and promoting their own personal growth.

Although a great deal of valuable information can be obtained from leaders and teachers through interviews and group meetings, many administrators have found that more comprehensive information can be obtained through written evaluation forms that are distributed at the end of each term.

These forms are especially helpful if they are correlated with the course plan made up at the beginning of the term. (See page 104.) An outline for a leader's or teacher's evaluation that has been used by several organizations is provided in Exhibit 43.

EXHIBIT 43

## LEADER'S EVALUATION FORM

Name of Activity ______________________________

Name of Leader ______________________________

Time and place of meeting ____________________ Date__________

I. Nature of the group
- A. Composition
  1. Enrollment, total: __________
     Men .......... __________
     Women ........ __________
  2. Age range
  3. Educational background
  4. Occupational representation
  5. Percentage of attendance for the term __________%
- B. Needs and interests
  1. What did the participants expect to get out of the activity?
  2. What do you feel were the real reasons for their joining?
- C. What, in your opinion, were the outstanding characteristics of this group? What was your reaction to it?

II. Aims
- A. General
  1. What did you conceive the objectives of this activity to be at the beginning of the term?
  2. In view of your experience, how would you alter these objectives for the future?
- B. Specific
  1. What specific results did you hope to achieve with individuals?
  2. To what extent were these results accomplished?

III. Methods and Content
- A. Methods
  1. Describe briefly the principal methods you employed in this activity.
  2. To which of these did the participants respond best?
  3. Appraise the interest of the participants in this activity. Did it fluctuate significantly? (If so, can you cite specific causes?)

4. What suggestions for improvement can you make?

B. Content
   1. Describe briefly the material covered in this activity.
   2. What changes in content would you suggest if the activity is repeated?

IV. Evaluation
   A. To what extent do you feel this activity fulfilled its objectives?
   B. What specific results were accomplished with individuals—what changes in behavior took place? (Cite cases.)
   C. What general recommendations would you make for the improvement of this activity? For the improvement of the program as a whole?

Observations by people who are not directly involved in the activity, such as staff personnel, members of the directing committee, and outside experts, can also provide valuable information for the evaluation process. These observations are most useful if made according to a systematic schedule of visitations and a standard rating scale. The factors to be rated should be listed specifically, in order that the observers will know exactly what to look for.

## Outcomes of Evaluation

The process, yardsticks, and methods of evaluation involve a great deal of planning and labor on the part of a number of people. Is evaluation worth all this trouble? What can be accomplished by evaluation?

There would be no point in evaluating if it did not result in action of some sort. Several kinds of action can be taken on the basis of information obtained through the evaluation process.

For one thing, the program can be changed. The objectives can be altered in the light of the new needs and interests of participants that have been revealed in the evaluation process. They should be altered also in the light of developments in the institution and in the community. The operational efficiency of the organization can also be improved as a result of information acquired through the evaluation process.

A second kind of action that should be taken as a result of evaluation is the reporting of the findings to the participants

and all others interested in the program. Those who have contributed to the evaluation have a right to know what the composite judgment turns out to be, and what actions have been taken as a result. Furthermore, their interest will be heightened if they are informed.

A third kind of action affects the leaders and teachers. While many of the recommendations growing out of evaluation will be concerned with improvements in the program as a whole, probably the largest number will be concerned with improvements in individual courses or activities. These improvements can be carried out only by the leaders and teachers themselves. Accordingly, complete and frank reports should be made to each leader concerning judgments made about the activity for which he is responsible. If these reports are presented as objective findings posing problems to be solved, rather than as indictments, they will be accepted by the leaders without defensiveness and will result in constructive action.

Informal adult education, as carried on by thousands of organizations of many kinds, has produced important and lasting results in helping our people and our society to improve themselves. How good a job has been done cannot be described specifically, because until now those in adult education have been too busy *doing* to give much time to *evaluating*. This is excusable in a movement that is in its infancy, but adult education is coming of age. It is imperative that it take time now to measure its results, both in order to justify its existence and in order to improve its services. Adult education faces a task of immense proportions in the immediate years ahead, the task of helping millions of grown-up people all over the world to transform themselves into mature adults. By perfecting its science now, it will be equal to the task.

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